

Edited by ALBERT SHAW

Mr. Balfour, the New British Premier

John C. Spooner, Leader of the Senate

The Georgia Governorship

M. Bloch's Great War Museum at Lucerne

The New Rice-Farming in the South

G. F. Watts: England's Greatest Artist

By W. T. Stead With Pictures

Industrial and Commercial Conditions in Cuba

The Cuban Municipality

By Victor S. Clark

Old and New Legal Systems in Porto Rico Amenities of City Pedestrians

A Seven-Masted Schooner and a Great Gun

IN "THE PROGRESS OF THE WORLD," "LEADING ARTICLES OF THE MONTH," "THE MONTH IN CARICATURE," AND OTHER DEPARTMENTS THERE ARE A GREAT NUMBER AND VARIETY OF TOPICS AND PICTURES OF SPECIAL INTEREST THIS MONTH.

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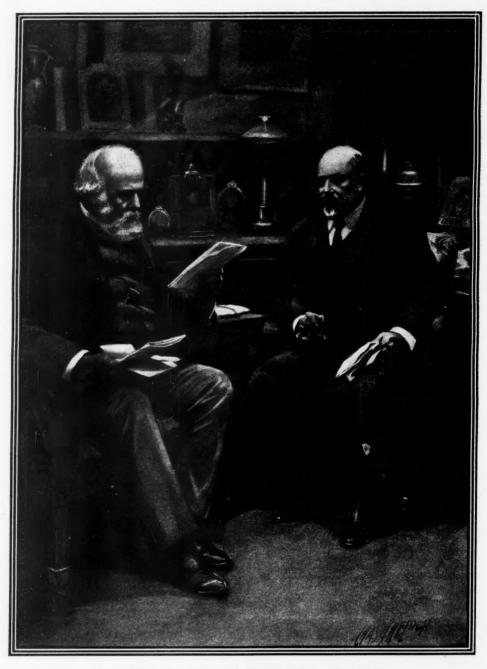
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THE AMERICAN MONTHLY REVIEW OF REVIEWS. EDITED BY ALBERT SHAW.

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KING EDWARD AND HIS FIRST PRIME MINISTER.

(Lord Salisbury, who retired from office last month, is shown in this drawing, made for Black and White by C. M. Sheldon, as in conference with the King at Marlborough House.)

THE AMERICAN MONTHLY

Review of Reviews.

VOL. XXVI.

NEW YORK, AUGUST, 1902.

No. 2.

THE PROGRESS OF THE WORLD.

England was the foremost center The King and through last month of the world's important news. It was not until the middle of July that there was full assurance that King Edward was on the high road to recovery. For a few days after the news, late in June, of the King's illness and submission to a surgical operation, with the indefinite postponement of the coronation and the abandonment of the programme of festivities, there were throughout the world such manifestations of anxiety and friendly concern as were witnessed last year when the life of President McKinley was hanging by a thread. The people of the British dominions showed the most profound feeling, and in the United States there was unbroken unanimity in the expressions of sympathy and good will. It seems that Edward had suffered from exposure at Aldershot during the military reviews, and had come down with a chill and other serious symptoms on June 14. The coronation, as our readers will remember, was to have taken place on June 26. For a number of days the King's physicians made him husband his strength in order that he might be ready for the essential parts of the coronation programme; but on the 24th a medical consultation disclosed

the fact that the King was suffering from a gravely critical case of perityphlitis, this being a particular form,—by no means an uncommon one,—of what is generally called peritonitis. It was decided that the only hope for the King's life lay in an immediate surgical operation to remove an abscess that had formed near the appendix, and this decision was immediately given effect, the operator being that eminent surgeon, Sir Frederick Treves. But for modern advances in medical knowledge and in the surgical art, the King must undoubtedly have died on or about the date that had been set for the coronation.

The King's chief anxiety about it all convalescence. was due to his desire that the people should not be disappointed, in view of their great preparations for the coronation. At first he insisted upon being carried to the Abbey, in order that the event might occur according to the programme. He was made, however, to understand the impossibility of any postponement of the necessary operation, which took place in Buckingham Palace, where subsequently the royal sufferer lay in a room facing the beautiful gardens. All this had come about so suddenly that the chief dignitaries of England were re-



Sir Francis H. Laking. Dr. Frederic W. Hewitt. Sir Frederick Treves. Sir Thomas Smith. Lord Lister.

THE GROUP OF FAMOUS PHYSICIANS AND SURGEONS WHO ATTENDED KING EDWARD.



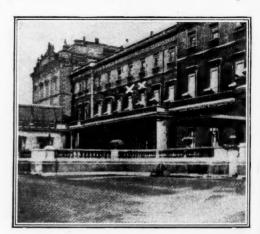
(From Illustrated London News.)

THE INTERCESSORY SERVICE IN THE ABBEY AT THE VERY HOUR ON JUNE 26 THAT HAD BEEN ORIGINALLY FIXED FOR THE CORONATION.

hearsing for the coronation, and the guests of royal blood from various countries were assembling at a state dinner which it was too late to postpone, and at which Queen Alexandra bravely presided in the absence of the King. The operation came just in the nick of time, and although the chances of recovery were regarded as very dubious for a few days, the King steadily gained, without relapses of any kind, until the bulletins of the attending physicians were no longer frequent, and the royal patient was pronounced out of danger and recovering rapidly. On July 15, he was well enough to be removed from the palace by ambulance to a special train for Portsmouth, where he was taken on board the royal yacht Victoria and Albert, with the expectation of spending a good many days in the sheltered waters off Cowes, with short sails from that point, according to the weather.

Coronation
Plans and Dis-sally believed in England that the appointments. King's mind was much depressed by reason of the superstition that he would never be crowned. And it was reported that the physicians, on the one hand, and the royal family and

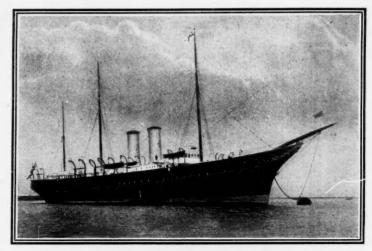
leading public men, on the other, had finally come to the conclusion that it would be in all respects advisable, especially for the sake of the King's equanimity, to have the coronation take place at the earliest possible moment. The plan



BUCKINGHAM PALACE, LONDON.
(The XX indicate windows of King's sick chamber.)

was to reduce the ceremony to the simplest terms, making it as brief as possible, and it was hoped that the King might be equal to the ordeal on or about August 9. It was not expected to recall the departed guests from other lands. Anxiety about the King's health, of course. threw into the background considerations of a less vital sort, but the disappointment was very great to some millions of people who, in one way or another, suffered loss or inconvenience. Looking back upon it all, it will doubtless be the verdict of most sober - minded people that England went somewhat too far in costly plans for an

occasion which, however interesting, did not in its very nature lend itself to such exhaustive and protracted schemes of celebration. Some of the features of the programme that were abandoned might well enough have been carried out after the King had successfully undergone the operation, and this remark applies above all to the great naval parade, for which England's ships were assembled and ready. The street parade, of course, was out of the question, because the royal presence was to have been its one necessary



THE ROYAL YACHT "VICTORIA AND ALBERT," ON WHICH THE KING HAS BEEN LIVING.

factor. Hundreds of thousands of seats had been prepared all along the route that had been marked out for the parade, and the provision and sale of these seats had involved speculation and investment to an aggregate of some millions of dollars.

The Quality of British Loyalty. In many other ways vast expenditures had been incurred which were rendered more or less futile by the abandonment of the coronation programme. But with so loyal a people as the British these things have

been counted as of little moment when compared with the good news of the recovery of the King. There is no other explanation for this feeling than the very simple one that finds right-mindedness and sound sentiment likely to prevail on such occasions. Obviously, all this anxiety about the King's recovery was not due to fear lest his death might bring either public or private misfortune to the realm, or to any class of the King's subjects. The stock market was not affected, and political circles as such were not agitated. If the King had died, Prince George would have come to the throne amidst as general good will as ever attended the accession of any sovereign in the history of



THE VIEW FROM THE WINDOW OF THE KING'S SICK-ROOM AT BUCKINGHAM PALACE.



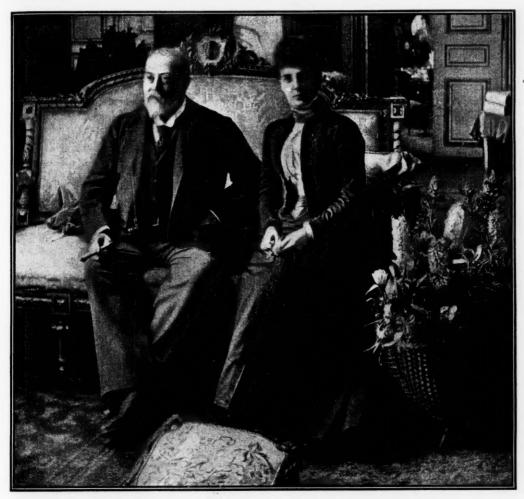
WESTMINSTER ABBEY AS ARRANGED FOR THE CORONATION CEREMONY.

(The King will be crowned August 9, in St. Edward's chair, in the foreground of the picture, and will afterward occupy the elevated throne.)

the world. And since Prince George is of mature years, and thoroughly well known, his coming to the throne would have involved no surprises or uncertainties. Everything would have gone on exactly as before; public affairs would not have been appreciably affected, and the private citizen would have perceived no difference. In the case of Queen Victoria there had grown up, by reason of the great length and marvelous success of her reign, and especially by reason of her exemplary qualities as sovereign and as woman, a feeling of personal attachment and devotion on the part of many millions of her subjects. King Edward has had neither time

nor opportunity to grow into such a place in the hearts of the people. But to have been indifferent would have been cynical; and from the point of view of the prevailing patriotic standards in England, indifference would have been essentially disloyal, as well as morally shocking.

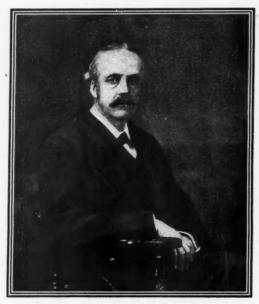
The very fact that the King has been Wellgravely ill, that his illness has called Conducted Royalty. out appropriate expressions of sentiment, and that it has incidentally occasioned a good deal of disappointment and loss, will do more than anything else to give him a deep hold henceforth upon the affections of the people. It



AN INFORMAL PICTURE OF THEIR MAJESTIES KING EDWARD AND QUEEN ALEXANDRA.

will, on the other hand, add something to that new seriousness and dignity of character which Edward has seemed to show since his accession to the throne. Doubtless he will never wholly recover his former physical vigor, although he may live for a good many years. Queen Victoria was so great a figure that the royal family, as a whole, suffered a good deal in comparison. Now that she is gone and that her successor has been very close to the threshold, it is extremely interesting to observe that the royal family stands high in the esteem of the British people, and that it seems to have adjusted itself remark. ably well to prevailing views and standards. Thus, the King's brother, the Duke of Connaught, is useful and respected, and is a military figure of deserved prominence. The heir, Prince George, is practically competent as a naval officer, and he and his wife are universally popular, and are associated with nothing that scandalizes or offends the British public. It would, perhaps, be hard to find a time in all history when royal families in general were so exemplary, so well-conducted, so little given to mere indulgence and luxury, and so responsible and intentionally useful as at the present time.

Lord Salisbury, as we remarked last Salisbury Out, month, was expected by those best informed in English politics to make the coronation of the King and the end of the South African War the occasion of his formal



THE RT. HON. ARTHUR BALFOUR. (The new British prime minister.)

retirement from political office. He did not allow the postponement of the coronation to change his plans, but merely waited until the King was well enough to be consulted and to name his successor as prime minister. Simultaneously with the announcement, on July 13, of Lord Salisbury's retirement, it was made known that the Rt. Hon. Arthur J. Balfour had been selected as his successor. There had been some idea that Mr. Chamberlain might succeed Lord Salisbury; but, although Mr. Chamberlain has undoubtedly come to be recognized as the most energetic and potent member of the government, he has continued to belong, nominally at least, to the Liberal Unionist party rather than to the Conservatives, although the Unionists have been acting with the Conservatives so generally upon most questions of policy that the distinction seemed to have lost much of its meaning. Mr. Chamberlain, moreover, while accepted as necessary by the rank and file of the Conservative politicians, is disliked by many of them, and Mr. Balfour was the one man upon whom it was easy for everybody concerned to unite as the immediate successor of his eminent relative. happens, moreover, that Mr. Balfour and Mr. Chamberlain profess to be good friends, and it was made evident from the outset that Mr. Chamberlain was to be regarded as the foremost member of the Balfour administration. Mr. Balfour has very many qualifications for leadership, even if

he has also some shortcomings. His critics charge against him nothing worse than dilettanteism, lack of energy, and an occasional want of thorough knowledge of the matter in hand, due to indolence. On the other hand, he is a man of large views, of high character, of considerable and varied scholarship, of marvelous self-control and amiability, and of very effective qualities as a debater. Mr. A. Maurice Low characterizes him for our readers in an article in this number.

The present government was elected Mr. Chamber- in October, 1900, on the strength of lain's Position. Lord Roberts' march to Pretoria and the declaration that the war was virtually at an The Conservative party was retained in power by a large majority, the present party balance in the House of Commons being about 400 supporters of the ministry, and about 270 opposition members, of whom 80 belong to the Irish contingent. Although there is a great deal of prevalent criticism of the party in power, the Liberal party continues to be lacking in unity and in definiteness of programme. There is no prospect, therefore, of any very early occasion for a dissolution of Parliament and an appeal to the country. One of the first announcements after the incoming of Mr. Balfour as premier was the impending retirement of Sir Michael Hicks Beach as Chancellor of the Exchequer. Sir Michael and Mr. Chamberlain have differed



LORD SALISBURY AT HOME.

radically on many points. It was expected that a number of other changes would gradually take place in the ministry, although not in such a way as to result in its radical recasting. Mr. Chamberlain had been injured on July 7 by a street accident while driving in a cab, and this had kept him from the House of Commons, from participation in the party conferences apropos of the change of prime minister, and especially from the long-expected meetings of colonial statesmen, over which, in his capacity as Colonial Secretary, he was to preside. His disablement, however, was only temporary, and it was easy enough to postpone the more important sessions of the colonial representatives until his recovery. Conflicting rumors were current as to the place Mr. Chamberlain was to hold in the Balfour ministry. The more general opinion was that he would prefer to remain at the Colonial Office, in order to superintend the reconstruction of South Africa, and to direct other matters of colonial policy. Other reports were to the effect that Mr. Chamberlain would prefer to become Chancellor of the Exchequer, in which office he would have opportunity to give shape to his well-known ideas in favor of certain preferential tariff arrangements as between the home country and the colonies.

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PROTECTION MASQUERADING.

RT. HON. SIR M. HICKS-BEACH, M.C.: "May I ask the lady's name? We have to be so very particular here." RT. HON. JOSEPH CHAMBERLAIN (as Pierrot): "Oh, well,—er—put her down as Baroness von Zollverein."

From Punch (London).



SIR JOHN GORDON SPRIGG.
(Prime Minister of Cape Colony.)

Colonial Statesmen at London. United Kingdom and the empire were naturally under discussion at London in view of the presence there of the foremost statesmen of Canada, Australia, New Zealand, and other parts of the empire. Such questions as those of colonial contribution to imperial defense, the construction of cables under imperial direction and control, the granting of subsidies to steamship lines, and the encouragement of reciprocal trade, brought out the expression of

various opinions, and showed colonial statesmanship in a favorable light. One of the most striking results of the presence in London of an influential aggregation of colonial statesmanship was the abandonment by the British Government of its intention to suspend the constitution of Cape Colony. The prime minister of that colony is Sir John Gordon Sprigg, and the scheme as proposed would have taken practical administrative power out of his hands and that of his ministerial colleagues, supported by a majority in the

Cape Parliament. It would have placed the entire governmental authority in the hands of Lord Milner, the British High Commissioner, who would have been accountable only to the Colonial Office at London. The premiers of other self-governing colonies,—among them Mr. Barton of Australia, Mr. Seddon of New Zealand, and Sir Wilfrid Laurier of Canada,—could hardly be expected to regard with favor such a novel precedent as would have been established by the suspension of self-government in Cape Colony.

These great colonies have naturally come to regard themselves as independent countries for all such purposes as the domestic ordering of their affairs. The circumstances under which England could deprive the Canadians, for instance, of the right to govern themselves would have to be very serious indeed. The object of Milner's plan seems to have been to deprive the Cape Colony Dutch of their large influence in South African affairs. But, although the situation is fraught with difficulties of detail, it is evident that the only principle upon which England can retain any secure hold in South Africa is that of giving the majority there a free rein .that, in short, of allowing the Dutch the liberty in Africa that the French enjoy in Canada.

The return of Coronation Lord Kitchener. Honors. who arrived in London on July 12, was made the occasion of a great deal of official and public demonstration. Lord Kitchener and Lord Milner were among those upon whom coronation honors were conferred, both being advanced to the rank of viscount. The most interesting circumstance in the distribution of coronation honors was the creation of a new so-called Order of Merit, to



(From the Hinstrated London News.

THE CANADIAN ARCH.

(One of the principal decorations on the line of coronation procession.)



Rt. Hon. W. E. H. Lecky. (Historian.)

Sir W. Huggins. (Man of science.)

Sir H. Keppel. (Admiral of the fleet.)

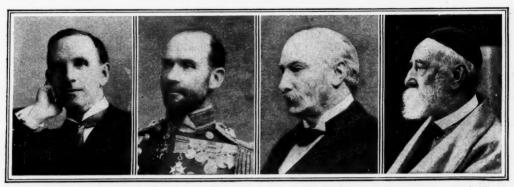
Lord Kelvin. (Natural philosopher.)



General Lord Kitchener.

Field-Marshal Lord Wolseley.

Field-Marshal Lord Roberts.



Mr. J. Morley. (Author and politician.)

Sir E. H. Seymour. (Admiral British navy.)

Lord Rayleigh. (Man of science.)

Mr. G. F. Watts (Painter.)

(Lord Lister was one of the twelve upon whom this order was conferred. His portrait appears on an earlier page, in the group of the King's physicians.)

THE FIRST RECIPIENTS OF KING EDWARD'S NEW ORDER OF MERIT.



THE DUKE OF CONNAUGHT

THE DUCHESS OF CONNAUGHT.

(Popular and useful members of the British royal family.)

which twelve men were designated. This list included three soldiers, Lords Wolseley, Roberts, and Kitchener; two admirals, Seymour and Keppel; four men of science, Lords Kelvin, Rayleigh, Lister, and Sir William Huggins, the astronomer; one artist, Mr. George F. Watts; and two men of letters, Mr. W. H. Lecky and Mr. John Morley. Of Mr. Watts, we publish in this number an interesting sketch by Mr. Stead.

Governor Taft's proposals to the Vat-As to the Philipine Friars. Principal points, embodied the idea that the United States should at a fair price buy the lands of the Spanish friars in the Philippines, and that the Vatican should withdraw the friars from the islands, -were, after several weeks of discussion, met by counter proposals on the part of the Vatican, delivered on July 9. These Vatican proposals were in twelve articles, most of which related to the land question, and provided specifically for the method of appraising the land and carrying the business to a conclusion. The withdrawal of the friars is not mentioned in the formal proposals, but in an accompanying note the Vatican declares that it is impossible to accede to the request of the United States on that score. It is intimated, however, that the Church authorities at Rome would see

that the friars caused no political friction in the Philippines, and it is implied that it would be the policy of the Vatican to replace gradually the Spanish friars with clerics of other nationalities, especially with Americans. The Vatican evidently expected that the United States would make further proposals, and that the period of negotiation at Rome would be prolonged. But Judge Taft, after awaiting instructions from Secretary Root, informed the Vatican, on July 16. that he would leave Rome on the 24th, and that it would be in accordance with the wishes of the United States Government if further negotiations were carried on at Manila between Governor Taft and the civil authorities on the one hand, and an apostolic commissioner, representing the Church, on the other hand.

A Fairly Successful Mission.

Judge Taft's mission at Rome resulted in a defining of the basis upon which it will evidently prove feasible to settle the land question, and to dispose of various other disputes relating to charitable, educational, and ecclesiastical property. As to the withdrawal of the friars, it must be remembered that this is a matter of no immediate concern to the American authorities. The people who are most inflexibly determined that these Spanish members of the religious orders shall leave the

islands are Catholic parish priests and the whole Filipino body of lay members of the Church. This hostility is so great that the friars have not for several years been able to occupy their lands, or to officiate in any way in the parishes where they were once powerful through the support of the Spanish Government. It is not difficult to understand, on reflection, that the Vatican should dislike to be put in the position of making a direct agreement to withdraw the friars. In the first place, this might be offensive to important elements of Church support in Spain; in the second place, it might be regarded as humiliating to the great world-wide orders of which these particular friars are members. What the Vatican would prefer would be to have this whole subject left to the discretion of the Church authorities, to be worked out gradually, and without any show of compulsion or pressure. It would probably be regarded as a violation of the treaty of peace with Spain if the United States should forcibly remove the friars from the Philippines. The great point, as it seems to us, is gained when the friars' titles to agricultural lands are extinguished by the payment of a fair compensation. The Vatican could have no motive for wishing to have the proceeds of the sale of these lands used for the reëstablishment anywhere in the archipelago of wholly unwelcome

members of the religious orders. On one pretext or another, these friars will inevitably be withdrawn, and they will naturally go either to Spain or to the South American countries. Judge Taft's sojourn at Rome will have proved fairly successful in the end.

Peace and The Fourth of July becomes an im-Civil Rule in portant date in Philippine history through the amnesty proclamation of President Roosevelt issued at Manila on that day. It marked the end of military administration. declared peace to exist, and subordinated the army to the civil régime in accordance with the Philippine government act passed by Congress a few days before. The proclamation, of course, did not apply to the Moro tribes, or the regions inhabited by them, which will have to remain under a separate system. The President's full and free amnesty was granted to all persons in the Philippine archipelago who had in any way opposed the authority and sovereignty of the United States. This, of course, did not apply to persons convicted of ordinary crimes, and it further required the taking of an oath of alle-Separate proclamations of the same date expressed appreciation of the work of the army, and relieved General Chaffee from further duties as military governor, that office being discon-



BENEVOLENT ASSIMILATION .- From the Herald (New York).



BRIG.-GEN. GEORGE W. DAVIS, U.S.A.

(Who succeeds General Chaffee in command of the Department of the Philippines.)

tinued. The President and Secretary Root, in an eloquent review of the work of the army, expressed to the soldiers in the Philippines their high appreciation of all that had been accomplished. By July civil government had been established in every part of the archipelago where civilized people were living. The amnesty proclamation liberated about 1,800 Filipinos, most of whom were held as military prisoners. Aguinaldo, who was among those accepting the amnesty, predicts an era of prosperity, contentment, and happiness, and it is said that he is coming to the United States to study American institutions.

The abolition of the office of military governor is emphasized by the recall of General Chaffee from the Philippines, and his appointment to the command of the Department of the East, with headquarters at New York. He is succeeded in the Department of the Philippines by Gen. George W. Davis. The vacancy in the Department of the East is caused by the retirement of Gen. John F. Brooke from active service on July 18, he having attained the age limit. Gen. Loyd Wheaton, who was serving under General Chaffee in the Philippines, also retired on account of age a few weeks ago, with many compliments upon the faithful and valuable service he had

rendered for a period of more than forty years in the army. Gen. Jacob H. Smith was so unfortunate as to be retired last month on recommendation of Secretary Root, by express order of President Roosevelt, to emphasize the disapproval that was felt of his conduct in issuing verbal orders to Major Waller in the Samar campaign to use measures of retaliation not countenanced by the rules of war. General Smith, being past sixty-two, had reached the age of voluntary retirement, and his career as a whole is commended both by the Secretary of War and the President.

The long session of the Fifty-seventh Congress came to an end on July 1.

The Philippine government bill, as finally agreed upon in conference between the two Houses on June 30, was passed on the same day by the House, and on the following morning,—that is to say, on the day of adjournment.—by



MAJ.-GEN. ADNA R. CHAFFEE, U.S.A.

the Senate, the Republicans supporting and the Democrats opposing it in both Houses. The House bill had called for a gold standard in the Philippines, and the Senate bill for the coinage of a special silver dollar. As an agreement on the question of monetary standards could not be reached, the whole subject was omitted from the final measure. It was agreed respecting a Philippine legislature that a census should first be taken, and that within two years thereafter the President should instruct the Philippine Commission

to call a general election for the choice of delegates to a popular assembly. The House bill was more stringent than that of the Senate with respect to the sale of public lands and the granting of franchises, etc., and the Senate conferees yielded on many of these points. If the Filipinos behave themselves intelligently and sensibly, they will have a real legislative assembly of their own within five years, and will be several centuries nearer actual self-government than at any time previous to the arrival of Dewey in Manila Bay.

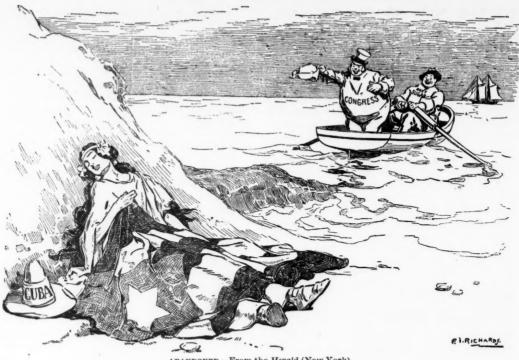
Congress always has to pass its regu-The Recent lar appropriation bills, and no session of Congress can be called a failure in which questions of ordinary income and expenditure are wisely dealt with. On the side of income, the recent session repealed the war taxes. and this must be set down to its credit, although a higher statesmanship would have dealt with the whole subject of public revenue in a more scientific way. Meanwhile, the largest surplus ever known in the history of any government had accumulated in the treasury, and Congress was unquestionably lavish, not to say reckless, in some of its disbursements. This remark applies especially to the river and harbor bill, upon which we commented last month. No one can justly



PATIENT BRITISH Ass (to himself): "Blest if I can feel a penn'orth o' difference between this old gal and the one that's just got off!"—From Punch (London).

criticise as too lavish, however, the provision made for the army and navy. The War Department deserves great credit for the steady reduction of the total army force, and the Navy Department provides for no more rapid increase in the number of our ships than the country, as a whole, is ready to approve. The appropriation for pensions has for some years past varied scarcely at all in In the main, the recent session has dealt fairly well with its ordinary responsibilities touching the provision of revenue and the vote of supply for the regular departments of administration. In England they are grumbling (see cartoon on this page) because peace brings no promise of marked reduction in taxes. In this country, on the other hand, about one hundred millions a year have recently been cut off.

Apart from these matters, Congress has accomplished two or three things Canal Bill. of historical importance. Besides ending the military régime in the Philippines and creating a system of civil government of which we have already spoken, the recent session passed an interoceanic canal measure, and thereby made a contribution of profound significance to the future history of the activities of the whole world. Since the final choice of routes depended upon some considerations that could better be dealt with by the executive than by the legislative branch of the Government, the Panama route was selected only provisionally. The bill as passed authorizes the President to acquire for \$40,000,000 the property and franchises of the Panama Canal Company and the Panama Railroad Company's stock. He is also to acquire suitable control over a strip of territory six miles wide, by negotiation with the republic of Colom-If satisfactory arrangements cannot be made, the President is authorized to revert to the Nicaragua route. Toward the cost of building the canal, provision is made for a popular two per cent. loan of \$130,000,000. The change of sentiment in Congress, from devotion to the Nicaragua route to a willingness to accept the Panama route, was due to the concurrence of several lines of argument; but it is not likely that final action could have been secured except for the remarkable shrewdness of the proposal which Senator Spooner made, and which carried everything before it. Since the Nicaragua advocates had held that the new Panama company could not give clear title, the bill as passed left them with some hope that the President would have to reject Panama and adopt the other alternative. From practical unanimity for Nicaragua, the House turned about and adopted the Senate's substitute of Panama, with hardly any opposing votes.



ABANDONED .- From the Herald (New York).

The bill also puts the State Depart-As to Right ment in a strong position for carrying on negotiations; for, if the Panama Canal Company does not clear up its franchise and titles in a satisfactory way, and if the republic of Colombia does not make favorable concessions as to the control of the necessary strip of land, the President may decide in favor of Nicaragua, -on condition, in turn, that the Nicaraguans offer favorable inducements. In our judgment, the outright purchase and annexation of the state of Panama would be preferable to the plan now on foot for some sort of lease of a six-mile strip. As we have frequently remarked, there is no precedent in all the history of the world for a nation's putting its most important and most costly public work upon alien soil. The retention of sovereignty over the state of Panama is of no real value to the republic of Colombia, and it would greatly clarify the situation for all future time if the Colombian authorities should sell the isthmus to the United States at a satisfactory price. The objection that this would be contrary to the constitution of the republic of Colombia is not conclusive to the minds of those who know how South American constitutions are made, revised, and amended. The acquisition of full sovereignty over the isthmus

would probably be a much easier matter to carry out in regular form, from the diplomatic standpoint, than the clearing up of the titles of the French company, whose original charters were forfeited some time ago, and which has nothing to sell us except an extended franchise obtained by means which its holders do not seem particularly eager to have explained. In any case, it will probably require two or three months to perfect a treaty with Colombia. Conditions are such in that country that, at the present time, no treaty could be made that would be other than the arbitrary ruling of the clique against whom a revolution has been more or less successfully raging for several years. The Attorney-General, Mr. Knox, who goes abroad this summer, will give some personal attention at Paris to the negotiations with the French company.

Congress, in the opinion of the best Congress and intelligence and judgment of the country, was guilty of one great sin of omission in failing to live up to the moral obligation of the United States to do something for the economic relief of Cuba. It would have been nothing more than decent to have admitted all Cuban crops of the present year to the ports of the United States duty free. We had taken

control, and had spent Cuba's revenues freely in reconstructing matters according to our own ideas. It was due to our self-respect to give the new Cuban government a handsome send-off. Economic prosperity, as every one knew, was essential both to the success of Cuba's experiment in home rule and to the establishment of permanently satisfactory relations between Cuba and the United States. Certain Western agricultural interests, creditably eager to promote the development of the American beet-sugar industry, were used as a cat's-paw by a designing combination which, in turn, had power enough at Washington to prevent any action whatso-The situation became a very complicated and involved one; but its outlines will be clear in due time. Then it will be plain enough to those agricultural interests which fought against the decent treatment of Cuba on the plea that they were defending American producers, that they were playing all the time into the hands of those against whom they were in supposed antagonism. President Roosevelt and the administration had mapped out a policy that was honorable, patriotic, and best for all true American interests. The safe and right attitude on this Cuban question, which in its main features is in no sense a party matter, was to follow the lead of President Roosevelt. It is a subject that cannot be dismissed or forgotten. It will have to be talked about through the pending Congressional campaigns, and it will have to be brought up when Congress meets again. The situation as it exists in Cuba is set forth in an article which we publish this month from the pen of Mr. A. G. Rob. inson, who has spent a great deal of time in the island, whose knowledge is exceptional, and whose expressions of opinion are at least honest and independent.

In the closing days of the session, The Admission Senator Quay of Pennsylvania, supported by the Democrats, succeeded in bringing about a parliamentary situation which practically compelled the Republicans to name a day early in the next session for taking up the bill providing Statehood for Oklahoma, New Mexico, and Arizona. Mr. Quay's interest in this matter seems to have no connection with public interests, but to be due to circumstances of a personal sort. The Democratic Senators have made it a matter of party policy to favor the admission of these Territories, from which they would hope to gain strength both in Congress and in the Electoral College. We have more than once stated the objections to immediate admission. If the subject were dealt with apart from personal, political, and private interests, and upon

its pure merits, there would be no possible chance for the passage of the pending admission bill.

The navy bill, as finally passed, promarressional vided for the building of one of the Matters. new battleships in a government yard. and Brooklyn has been selected as the place, as against Boston and Norfolk, which were the other leading competitors. This experiment of direct building of a great warship by the Government itself will be watched with peculiar interest. Among other matters of importance dealt with in the recent session are to be mentioned the extension of the acts excluding Chinese laborers, and their application to the insular possessions of the United States. We mentioned last month the passage of the irrigation bill as involving a new policy destined to have results of the most stupendous importance. The establishment of a permanent census office is a notable matter. On the other hand, the expectation that Congress would create a new cabinet portfolio of commerce and industry failed completely.

Besides the Congressional elections The Political in all of the forty-five States, most of which will occur on November 4. twenty - seven of the States have gubernatorial elections this year, and the majority also elect legislatures. Furthermore, many of the legislatures to be elected will have to choose United States Senators. Of the twenty-seven gubernatorial elections, one, -namely, Oregon, comes early, and has already been held. Arkansas, Vermont, and Maine hold their State elections in September, and will choose governors and other State officers on September 1, 2, and 8, respectively. In Maine, Governor Hill will probably be reëlected, and the State is expected to show normal Republican preponderance, although the Democrats are hoping to cut down the majority for the sake of a supposed influence upon the Congressional elections throughout the country. In Vermont a third ticket for governor has been put in the field by the Local Option League, which, on July 16, nominated Hon. P. W. Clement, of Rutland. Vermont has for a long time been a prohibition State, and Mr. Clement, who was a candidate for the regular Republican nomination for governor, is a leader in the movement to substitute a high-license and local-option law for the existing arrangement. Thus, the liquor question will play an unusual part in Vermont politics this year. In New York there has been incessant discussion of the subject of Democratic reorganization and harmony, and a long list of names has been suggested for the Democratic candidacy for governor; but most of those



Photo by Gutekunst.

EX-GOV. ROBERT E. PATTISON, OF PENNSYLVANIA.

named have promptly declared that under no circumstances would they accept. It is regarded as a settled fact that Governor Odell will be renominated by the Republicans. It seems also to have become the accepted opinion that President Roosevelt will have the unanimous endorsement of the Republicans of his own State of New York for a second term, Senator Platt and Governor Odell being the chief party spokesmen. The Pennsylvania Republicans, led by Senator Quay, have expressed themselves as strongly favoring Roosevelt; and since the President's popular strength in the Mississippi Valley and the far West is even greater, if possible, than in the East, the prospect of his renomination is exceptionally favorable. Many things, however, may happen in the course of two years. We mentioned last month the nomination of Judge Pennypacker as Republican candidate for the governorship of Pennsylvania. The Democrats have a strong candidate in Hon. Robert E. Pattison, who was elected governor in 1882, and again in 1890. The Democratic platform confines itself to State and local issues, which fact gives occasion for an amusing cartoon that we reproduce herewith. In Ohio, where there is no election for governor pending, there is no lack of political interest and activity, and the Democratic situation is decidedly factional, with Mayor Johnson of Cleveland and Mr. John R. McLean of Cincinnati leading the rival wings.

The idea that Bryan and Bryanism Bryanism are practically extinct, and that the whole Democratic party is ready either to forget or repudiate them, finds no justification in current political facts. The greatest Democratic State in the country is Texas, and on July 16 the State convention adopted a platform reaffirming the principles of the Kansas City document of 1900. That wing of the Texas democracy led by Senator Bailey was successful in controlling the convention, and the Hon. S. W. T. Lanham was nominated for governor. On the same date the Democrats of North Carolina met in convention, and they also endorsed the Kansas City platform on a square contest by a vote of 690 to 535. The Georgia Democrats. on the other hand, had in their convention of July 2 omitted all reference to Mr. Bryan and the Kansas City platform. North Carolina is not electing a governor; but in Georgia the Democrats have nominated for that office Hon. Joseph M. Terrell, in accordance with the decision of a primary election, an account of which is given in a brief article appearing elsewhere in this



TOO MIGHTY BIG TO BE SCREENED.
From the Inquirer (Philadelphia).

issue of the REVIEW. The Minnesota Democrats had endorsed Mr. Bryan and the Kansas City platform on June 25, and at the same time nominated L. A. Rosing for governor. The strength of Bryanism has also been shown in three other Western States where fusion tickets have been arranged between the Democrats and Populists. In Nebraska, Mr. Bryan declined the gubernatorial nomination, and the Democrats and Populists united upon W. H. Thompson, himself a Bryan Democrat. A fusion ticket has also been adopted in South Dakota, headed by John W. Martin for governor. In Kansas a fusion ticket is in the field, W. H. Craddock being the gubernatorial candidate. Nothing in the near future could revive free silver as a paramount party issue; but it does not follow that Bryanism is not to be a strong factor in the next national Democratic convention. The so called Democratic harmonizers should, therefore, bear in mind that the Bryan forces are to be reckoned with, and that it would be impossible to secure the Democratic nomination in 1904 for any man who was not an open and active supporter of Mr. Bryan in the last campaign. Mr. Bryan himself has criticised severely the harmony meeting of the Tilden Club. to which we referred last month, on the ground that it gave the principal place of honor and deference to Mr. Cleveland, who had not supported the regular Democratic ticket at the last election. It is understood that Mr. Cleveland's preference for 1904 is the Hon. Richard Olnev. of Massachusetts; but unless present signs fail, the Democratic candidate will be a much younger man than Mr. Olney, and will come from New York, or else from the South. Among the Southern men whose names may come into great prominence in connection with the Democratic candidacy are, first, Governor Montague of Virginia; and, second, Senator Bailey of Texas.

Mr. Bailey had been gaining ground As to Mr. Bailey. rapidly as a Congressional figure. Although a new member of the Senate, and one of the youngest ever elected to that body, he had come to be recognized as the most forcible debater and the most promising leader on the Democratic side of the chamber, before the recent session came to an end. Since then he has shown himself able to control the party convention of his own State. Those, however, who thought well of him, and were willing to acknowledge his seeming growth in capacity as a public man, were greatly disappointed by the revelation, almost at the very end of the session, of a phase of his character which had not been known. Mr. Bailey had made serious charges against the solicitor of the State Department, an

esteemed public man from Indiana. Senator Beveridge, of Indiana, naturally came to the defense of an official from his own State whom he well knew, and he declared that Senator Bailey's charges and aspersions were unwarranted. Because Senator Beveridge could not withdraw his statement that the attack was unwarranted without himself reflecting upon his friend the State



SENATOR BAILEY, OF TEXAS.

Department official. Senator Bailey most absurdly chose to consider that he had been insulted: and he made a brutal and violent attempt to assault the Senator from Indiana. It will require several vears of exemplary behavior for Mr. Bailev to live down the bad reputation this incident has given him. The quarrel was entirely on one side, Senator Beveridge

never for a moment tosing his good temper. Mr. Beveridge's industry, courage, and sheer ability have already given him a high position in the Senate. As to the reflections upon the State Department and upon Mr. Penfield, the Foreign Relations Committee of the Senate will investigate.

Mr. Spooner The remarkable position attained in the Congress the Senate by Mr. Spooner, of Wisand at Home. consin, in the last session is set forth in an article elsewhere in this issue of the Review from the pen of Mr. Walter Wellman, -an article, which, if eulogistic, does not exaggerate the facts. Mr. Spooner's usefulness as a public man, and its recognition by the country at large, ought to arouse the pride of the State of Wisconsin in so worthy a Senator. His term is about to expire, and the whole country hopes that he may be reëlected; but the Republicans of Wisconsin have been sharply divided over certain State issues, and the convention held in the middle of July was dominated by Governor La Follette and his friends. A renomination was accorded to the governor, and a platform was adopted strongly advocating nominations by direct vote through primaries, and, further, certain taxation measures which are leading features in Mr. La Follette's policy for the reform of Wisconsin politics and government. Mr. Spooner's merits as a Senator were fully recognized by the convention; but his endorsement for another term was made conditional upon his express acceptance of those planks in the platform which, having no bearing

upon party doctrine, set forth the favorite projects of the governor. Mr. Spooner should be allowed to devote himself to national questions, and should be excused by both sides from participation at the present moment in controversies over strictly State and local matters.

Northwestern Republicans and Minnesota held their convention on July 1, and renominated Gov. Samuel R. Van Sant.

The Michigan Repub licans, on June 26. had renominated Gov. Aaron T. Bliss. These three Northwestern States, - Michigan, Wisconsin, and Minnesota, - had, through a number of their representatives in the House, strongly opposed the Cuban reciprocity plan, and had been active and prominent in the movement of the socalled "beet sugar insurgents." The



GOVERNOR LA FOLLETTE, OF WISCONSIN.

Minnesota convention undertook in its platform to endorse at the same time President Roosevelt's demand for reciprocity and the position of the Minnesota representatives in their specific opposition. Minnesota wants to make sure that the sugar trust shall not derive benefit from the way in which reciprocity is applied. The Wisconsin convention did not express itself on the subject. The Michigan platform does not refer directly to the question of Cuban reciprocity, but by inference its strong endorsement of the protective tariff may be regarded as intended to convey the idea that reciprocity with Cuba would involve a weakening of the protective system.

The Campaign the reopening of the tariff question at the present time, on the ground that the country is actually prosperous, that the tariff is working well, that no business interests are demanding any changes in it, and that no class of people has come forward to show that it suffers any injuries from the maintenance of the Dingley schedules. The Democratic campaign committee, on the other hand, has determined to make the tariff and the trusts the foremost issues in the November elections. A number of Republican platforms have endorsed President Roosevelt's position regarding trusts, and it may prove somewhat difficult for the Democrats to

establish their right to make any party capital out of that problem. The gratifying progress made in the adjustment of Philippine conditions leaves little room for partisan attacks in that direction, and the shrewdest of the Democratic leaders are well aware that nothing could be much more unpopular with the people than assaults upon our army in its splendid and selfsacrificing labors on the other side of the globe. The compulsory retirement of Gen. Jacob H. Smith by President Roosevelt has furnished sufficient proof to the country that the administration has not condoned any methods contrary to the rules of civilized warfare. The one thing for which the Republican party deserves to suffer severely in the Congressional campaign is its failure to deal honorably and efficiently with Cuba,

The anthracite coal strike in Pennsyl-Rituminous vania had continued without incidents startling enough to attract widespread attention until the holding of the national convention of the United Mine Workers at Indianapolis, on July 17 and the two following days. The object of this convention was to decide whether or not the bituminous miners of the country should strike in sympathy with the men of the hard-coal districts. President Mitchell was prepared to recommend in the most emphatic manner that the bituminous men should remain at work in accordance with the wage-scale arrangements under which they were employed, and argued that the best way to help the hard-coal miners would be to contribute money regularly for their maintenance. The first proposition, that every miner should contribute a dollar a week from his wages, was modified in favor of a percentage plan which would yield as much, or more, money in the aggregate. It was also determined to look to other trade unions and to the general public for financial support, and to issue an address to the American people explaining the situation and stimulating sentiment in favor of arbitration. Among well-informed people in Pennsylvania the opinion was prevalent that the strike would continue for a considerable time to come. The employing interests involved were disseminating the view that the strike was on the point of disintegration. It was asserted that a considerable amount of hard coal was being mined, and that this amount would steadily increase. Large industrial consumers of hard coal, however, were finding it extremely difficult to obtain supplies. Meanwhile, it was said that a very considerable proportion of the mining population had gone away from the anthracite districts. It would, perhaps, be fortunate for all concerned if all these, and more besides, should find permanent employment elsewhere.

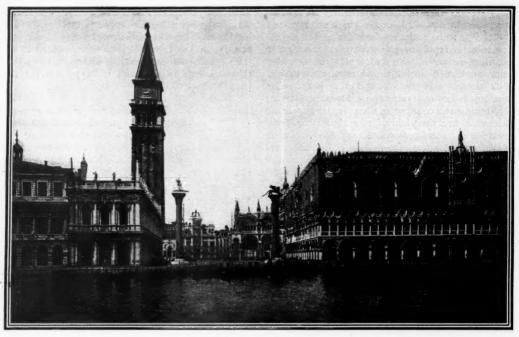
Midsummer always brings its alarms General about staple crops which are reported to be suffering from drought or excessive rain, or from some other cause. Particular localities, even in the best crop years, suffer from adverse conditions. Generally speaking. 1902 promises to be a good crop year. The rains injured considerably the winter wheat crop: but, taking the country as a whole, there will be at least an average yield of wheat, and the prospects for corn and cotton are very good. controversies, apart from the anthracite coal strike, were as a rule finding solution, and the industrial situation was exceedingly good in all lines of manufacture. The iron and steel trades will show larger aggregates for 1902 than last year, which, in turn, had broken all previous records. A gratifying result of this unprecedented prosperity is the fact that the United States Steel Corporation has voluntarily advanced the wages of 100,000 employees 10 per cent., this advance applying to union as well as nonunion men. Although there has been much talk about the purchase and consolidation of steamship lines under the auspices of Mr. J. Pierpont Morgan, there has not yet been announced the formation of any company representing the steamship aggregation. The suits against the Northern Securities Company are still pending, and it is probable that the delay in organizing the new steamship company has something to do with the principles involved in the Northern Securities litigation.

The South American states are not in In Spanish- very satisfactory news relation with the outside world, but there were enough bulletins from Venezuela last month to show that the revolution had taken a new hold. and that President Castro had left his capital and taken charge of the troops in the field in what seemed to be a losing, defensive campaign. Our cruisers, the Cincinnati and the Topeka, were at La Guayra, and our minister, Mr. Bowen, on July 14, asked by cable for another warship. In Colombia the revolutionists have been suffering reverses, and Colombia has been giving some attention to Nicaragua on the charge that the Nicaraguans had been abetting the Colombian revolutionists for reasons relating to canal rivalry. The presence of the United States vessel, the Marietta, helped to restore order in Haiti, where earlier in the summer a revolution had resulted in the expulsion of President Jiminez, who has found in New York a safe and congenial refuge. New elections were pending in Haiti last month. Uruguay has been stirred up over an alleged plot to assassinate the President, who had accordingly

felt himself justified in disregarding the constitution and arresting a number of members of the legislature. The occasional recurrence of volcanic activity in the Lesser Antilles has ceased to attract much outside attention, although the situation is a very painful and unhappy one for the people who live there.

The Venezuelan and French govern-French Affairs. ments have entered upon a most admirable agreement for settling by arbitration the outstanding disputes due to various claims of French citizens. Each country is to appoint an arbiter, and M. de Leon v Castilo, the Spanish minister to Paris, is to be the third arbiter. The first two will settle as many points as possible, and all remaining differences will be settled finally and without appeal by the Spanish minister. This excellent arrangement will, of course, hold good no matter what faction succeeds in the civil war. The new French administration has taken hold of some very important questions. Premier Combes is enforcing the law relating to religious associations with unsparing rigor, and a great number of Church schools have accordingly been closed. M. Rouvier, the new Finance Minister, is proposing to make his term of official power memorable by a conversion to a 3 per cent. basis of that part of the permanent debt of France that now pays 31 per cent.

In Spain, as well as in France, there Affairs in Spain. is a strong movement on foot against the control of the Church in the educational field. A very drastic decree on this subject has been signed by King Alfonso. Señor Canalejas, who was a prominent member of the Sagasta ministry, resigned some little time ago, and he has been stirring up the country with an impassioned popular campaign against clerical Apropos of King Edward's new domination. Order of Merit, it is to be mentioned that there has been much agitation in Spain over appointments to King Alfonso's new order, to which it was announced that all the eminent Spaniards of science and letters would be named in the first The greatest difficulty arose over the question of including the rather liberal and modern-minded novelist Galdos, who has now, however, received his grand cross. The new treaty of trade, commerce, and amity between the United States and Spain was signed on July 3 by the Spanish foreign minister and our minister, Bellamy Storer, at Madrid. The new minister from Spain to the United States is Señor de Ojeda, who presented his credentials at the State Department on July 15. He is a most accomplished and intelligent gentleman, who points out

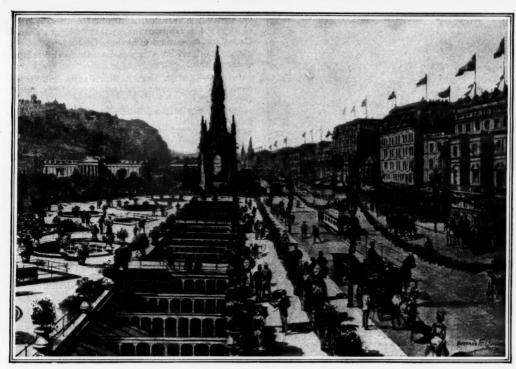


A FAMILIAR VIEW OF VENICE, SHOWING THE CAMPANILE, WHICH FELL LAST MONTH,

with force and wisdom the advantages that would ensue from a reciprocity treaty between Spain and the United States.

The German Agrarians are evidently Elsewhere not going to succeed with their tariff project. As was stated last month, the Reichstag has adjourned until October, and the Agrarians had apparently been told by Chancellor von Bülow that there is no chance for the success of their measure before the election of a new Reichstag, which was to occur next winter or spring. The agreement for the renewal of the Triple Alliance has been formally signed, but European alliances are no longer regarded as menacing or warlike; but, on the contrary, as factors for the maintenance of peace. The relations between France and Germany are gradually improving; Austria and Russia have a special understanding regarding the Balkans and the Eastern Question; while Italy and France have come into very good relations through general agreement upon their respective spheres in North Africa. Apropos of the French protectorate over Tunis, it is to be noted that the old Bey, Sidi-Ali, died not long ago, and that he has been succeeded by Sidi Mohamed. The fact that in the very period of the renewal of the Triple Al-

liance the King of Italy should be in Russia visiting the Czar, and that he was able to secure a promise that the Czar would visit him at Rome, makes plain enough that Germany's allies are not necessarily under strained relations with the ally of France. The whole civilized world was shocked at the news, on July 14, that the famous Campanile, or bell tower, of St. Mark's, at Venice, had completely collapsed. The Emperor Francis Joseph is apparently about to succeed in securing a renewal of the Austro-Hungarian customs union. The Austrian minister at Washington has been made an ambassador, and, in turn, our minister at Vienna, Mr. McCormick, has been promoted to like rank. Lord Hopetoun has thrown up in disgust the governorgeneralship of Australia, the trouble being due to opposition to the plan for raising his salary from \$50,000 to \$100,000. Minister Wu Ting-Fang is needed in China for important service relating to a modernization of the laws of the empire, and Sir Liang-Chen-Tung, well known in this country and a Yale graduate, succeeds him. Our State Department has been rendering China great service of late, and as one result Tien tsin is to be evacuated by the European powers this month. Ratifications of the Manchurian convention were exchanged at St. Petersburg on June 29.



PRINCES' STREET, EDINBURGH, WITH ITS CORONATION DECORATIONS.

RECORD OF CURRENT EVENTS.

(From June 21 to July 20, 1902.)

PROCEEDINGS IN CONGRESS.

June 24.—The Senate passes a bill for the purchase of a national forest reserve in the Southern Appalachian Mountains and ratifies an agreement with the Choctaw and Chickasaw Indians....The House closes general debate on the Philippine civil government bill.

June 25.—The Senate passes the army appropriation bill and postpones consideration of the bill admitting Arizona, New Mexico, and Oklahoma to Statehood till December 10.

June 26.—The Senate passes the general deficiency appropriation bill....The House, by a vote of 141 to 97, passes the Philippine civil government bill, and by a vote of 252 to 8 passes the Senate Isthmian canal bill, which goes to the President for signature.

June 30.—The House adopts the conference report on the Philippine civil government bill, and agrees to the appropriation of \$160,000 to meet the losses of the Charleston exposition in the general deficiency bill.

July 1.—An agreement is reached between House and Senate on the naval appropriation bill, by the terms of which one battleship is to be built in a government yard, and others in case of any attempt to restrict competition....The first session of the Fifty-seventh Congress adjourns.

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT.-AMERICAN.

June 25.—Nebraska Democrats and Populists agree on a fusion ticket, with W. H. Thompson for governor....South Dakota Democrats and Populists nominate John F. Martin for governor....Minnesota Democrats nominate Leonard A. Rosing for governor....Pennsylvania Democrats nominate ex-Gov. Robert E. Pattison for governor....Missouri Republicans name Theodore Roosevelt for President in 1904.

June 26.—Michigan Republicans renominate Gov. Aaron T. Bliss.

July 1.—Minnesota Republicans renominate Governor Van Sant and adopt a platform declaring for Cuban reciprocity and supporting President Roosevelt.

July 2.—Georgia Democrats nominate Joseph M. Terrell for governor (see page 170).

July 3.—Orders are issued by President Roosevelt establishing civil government throughout the Philippines and proclaiming amnesty for Filipino political prisoners.

July 5.—President Roosevelt issues an order forbidding persons in the classified civil service to use outside influence in attempts to secure promotion.

July 16.-Wyoming Republicans renominate De Forest



THE SPECIAL CORONATION ANNEX TO WESTMINSTER ABBEY.

Richards for governor....President Roosevelt reprimands, and compulsorily retires, Brig.-Gen. Jacob H. Smith, on account of his "kill and burn" order in the Philippines.

July 17.—Wisconsin Republicans renominate Gov. Robert M. La Follette, and declare in favor of the reelection of John C. Spooner to the United States Senate, on condition that he accept the principles of the State platform (see page 167).

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT.-FOREIGN.

June 23.—Lord Milner is sworn in as governor of the Orange River Colony, in South Africa.

June 24.—An operation for appendicitis is performed on King Edward VII., and the coronation ceremony is indefinitely postponed.

June 25.—The British House of Commons passes third reading of finance bill by a vote of 236 to 181.

June 27.—The French Government orders the closing of 120 girls' schools established since the passing of the Religious Associations Law.

June 28.—The Swedish ministry resigns, and M. Boström undertakes the forming of a new cabinet.

June 30.—The conference of British colonial premiers is opened in London.

July 1.—The Prince of Wales reviews the British colonial troops in London.

July 3.—Venezuelan government troops under Gen. Modesto Castro, the President's brother, are routed by revolutionary troops under General Rolando.

July 4.—The finance bill passes third reading in the British House of Lords.

July 8.—The British Parliament discusses the Atlantic shipping combination.

July 9.—The French Chamber of Deputies, by a vote of 307 to 224, invalidates the election of Count Jean de Castellane, on account of his use of money.

July 11.—Lord Salisbury resigns the premiership of Great Britain.

July 12.—The Rt. Hon. Arthur James Balfour succeeds Lord Salisbury as prime minister of Great Britain (see page 161).

July 14.—Sir Michael Hicks-Beach resigns his portfolio as Chancellor of the Exchequer in the British Government.

July 17.—Earl Cadogan resigns the lord lieutenancy of Ireland.

July 18.—It is officially announced in London that King Edward's coronation will take place on August 9. July 20.—Seyyid Alli is proclaimed Sultan of Zanzibar, with Prime Minister Rogers as regent.

INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS.

June 21.—Russia withdraws from the foreign government of Tien-tsin and from the foreign conference at Peking....The Chilean Senate ratifies the arrangement between the Chilean and Argentine governments.

June 28.—The Triple Alliance, or Dreibund, of Germany, Austria, and Italy is renewed at Berlin.

July 1.—China refuses to pay the July installment of the indemnity except at the rate of exchange prevailing on April 1, 1901, and in this attitude is supported by the United States.

July 3.—Governor Taft communicates to the Vatican the terms on which the United States proposes to acquire the land held by the friars in the Philippines.... A treaty of amity, commerce, and navigation between the United States and Spain is signed at Madrid.

July 4.—Thirty Bulgarians are killed by Turkish troops on the frontier.

July 9.—Negotiations with Colombia for a Panama Canal treaty are begun by the United States.

July 13.—Sir Liang Chen Tung is appointed Chinese minister to the United States....The King of Italy arrives at St. Petersburg as the guest of the Czar.

July 16.—Governor Taft presents to the Vatican the final statement of the intentions of the United States regarding the withdrawal of the friars from the Philippines...The Spanish Treaty Claims Commission decides that claims of American citizens for destruction



THE PRESENT EXECUTIVE MANSION OF THE UNITED STATES
—PRESIDENT ROOSEVELT'S HOME AT OYSTER BAY, LONG
ISLAND.

of property by the Cuban insurgents may be admitted to proof; and, further, that no legal state of war existed in Cuba during the insurrection prior to the Spanish American war.

July 17.—The Chinese foreign office accepts the terms for the withdrawal of foreign troops at Tien-tsin.

OTHER OCCURRENCES OF THE MONTH.

June 22.-President Mitchell, of the United Mine

Workers, issues a statement giving the miners' side in the anthracite coal strike (see page 210). Fire causes heavy losses in the business portion of Portland, Ore.

June 23.—The Toronto street-railway strike is settled by a compromise.

June 25. - A windstorm in Indiana causes damage estimated at \$2,000,000 President Roosevelt receives the degree of Doctor of Laws from Harvard University.

June 26. - It is announced that King Edward has established an Order of Merit in England, to which the following twelve men have been admitted: Lords Wolseley, Roberts, and

Kitchener; Admirals Seymour and Keppel; Lord Kelvin, Lord Rayleigh, Lord Lister, and Sir William Huggins; Mr. George Frederick Watts (see page 183), and Mr. W. H. Lecky and Mr. John Morley.

June 30.—The American Association for the advancement of Science begins its sessions at Pittsburg.

July 3.-Fire at Lourenzo Marques, in Portuguese East Africa, destroys British military stores valued at more than £500,000 (\$2,500,000).

July 4.—President Roosevelt makes a Fourth of July address at Pittsburg.

July 5.-King Edward's physicians announce that his Majesty is out of danger....President Roosevelt begins his summer vacation at Oyster Bay, Long Island.

July 6.-The centenary of Alexandre Dumas, the elder, is celebrated at his birthplace, Villers Cotterets, France....Destructive floods cause much damage in central and western New York State.

July 7.-A strike of freight handlers, affecting all the railroads entering Chicago, goes into effect; 9,000 men

July 10 .- A gas explosion in the Cambria mine at Johnstown, Pa., causes the death of more than 100 men....Thousands of people are rendered homeless by the high water in the Des Moines River, Iowa.... The National Educational Association, in session at Minneapolis, chooses President Eliot, of Harvard, as its presi-

July 12.—General Kitchener is welcomed in England. and made the recipient of many honors.



THE LATE GEN. THOMAS J. MORGAN.

(Famous as commander of negro troops in the Civil War. later distinguished as philanthropist, and Commissioner of Indian Affairs un-

der President Harrison.)

July 14.—The famous Campanile of St. Mark's Church in Venice falls in ruins (see page 150).

July 15 .- King Edward is taken to Cowes, Isle of Wight

July 16.—The striking freight handlers at Chicago return to work, without concessions from the railroads. A strike ties up the street-railway system of Richmond, Va.

July 19.—The national convention of the United Mine Workers at Indianapolis declares against a general strike of bituminous miners and adopts President Mitchell's assessment plan for raising funds.

OBITUARY.

June 23.-Dean Sage, a prominent merchant of Albany, N. Y., 61.... William Bement Lent, author of "Halcyon Days" and other books, 60 ... Charles T. Child, editor of the Electrical Review, 35.

June 24.-Hon. George Leake, Premier and Attorney-General of western Australia, 46.

June 25.-Ex-Justice Walter S. Cox, of Washington, D. C., who presided at the trial of Guiteau, the assassin of Garfield, 76....James Fergus, founder of Fergus Falls, Minn., and Montana pioneer, 89.... Charles D. Poston, the "Father of Arizona," 80.

June 26.—The Rev. Dr. William Garden Cowle, Bishop of Auckland, 71.... Mai.-Gen. Sir Francis Scott, who commanded Ashanti expedition, 1895-96, 67....Rt. Hon. William Lidderdale, director and ex-governor of the Bank of England, 70.

June 27.-Sir John Major Henniker-Major, Governor of the Isle of Man, 60....Justice Charles D. Long, of the Michigan Supreme Court, 61.



SIR MICHAEL HICKS-BEACH.

(Who retires from his post as Chancellor of the Exchequer in the British Government.)



THE FUNERAL OF KING ALBERT OF SAXONY.
(King Albert died on June 18, and was succeeded in the kingship by his brother, Prince George.)

June 28.—Judge Henry K. Baker, of Hallowell, Maine, 95.

June 29.—Gen. John Hendrickson, of New York, Civil War veteran, 70....Major Ira Alexander Shaler, civil engineer, 40.

July 4.—Hervé A. E. A. Faye, the astronomer, oldest member of the Academy of Sciences, 88.

July 7.—Chief Justice Marshall J. Williams, of the Ohio Supreme Court, 65 William Clark, the thread manufacturer of Newark, N. J., 61.

July 8.—James P. Stephens, of Trenton, N. J., one of the oldest pottery manufacturers in the country, 62....Mrs. Mary H. Cheeseborough, of Saratoga, N. Y., a miniature-portrait artist, 79.

July 9.—Judge William Marvin, of Skaneateles, N. Y., 94.... Edmund J. Cleaveland, a widely-known genealogist, of Hartford, Conn., 59.... Mrs. Charles G. Leland, an American woman well known in Europe, 71.

July 10.—Mrs. Annie Alexander Hector ("Mrs. Alexander"), the English novelist, 77.

July 12.—Archbishop Patrick A. Feehan, of the Roman Catholic archdiocese of Chicago, 73.

July 13.—Gen. Thomas J. Morgan, Civil War veteran, and corresponding secretary of the American Baptist Home Mission Society, 63.

> July 14.—Sir Joseph Ignatius Little, Chief Justice and Deputy Governor of Newfoundland, 67....William Still, of Philadelphia, one of the most prominent members of the negro race, 80.

> July 16.—The Very Rev. William Choka, vicar-general of the Roman Catholic diocese of Nebraska, 62.

July 17.—Brevet Maj.-Gen. Charles H. Smith, retired, of Maine, Civil War veteran, 75....Maj. Frederick W. Coleman, of Plainfield, N. J., Civil War veteran, 65....William Johnston, Conservative member of Parliament for South Belfast, 73.... William H. Williams, general manager of the Union News Company, 62.

July 18.—The Sultan of Zanzibar....

Marquis Saigo, a distinguished Japanese statesman.

July 20.—John W. Mackay, American financier, 71.



THE LATE KING ALBERT OF SAXONY.

FORTHCOMING EVENTS.

THE following conventions have been announced for this month: American Bar Association, at Saratoga Springs, N. Y., on August 27-29; American Fisheries Society, at Put-in-Bay, Ohio, on August 5-7; American Forestry Association, at Lansing, Mich., on August 27-28; League of American Municipalities, at Grand Rapids, Mich., on August 27-29; American Park and Outdoor Art Association, at Boston, on August 5-7; Universalist Church of America, at Old Orchard, Maine, on August 1-10; Friends' International Christian Endeavor Convention, at Richmond, Va., on August 8-10; National Federation of Catholic Societies, at Chicago, on August 5-7; Catholic Total Abstinence

Union, at Dubuque, Iowa, on August 6-9; Salvation Army Encampment, at Old Orchard, Maine, on August 16-September 3; General Conference of Christian Workers of the United States, at East Northfield, Mass., on August 1-September 7; Brotherhood of the Kingdom, at Morristown, N. J., on August 4-8; Trans-Mississippi Congress, at St. Paul, on August 19-22; National Fraternal Congress, at Denver, on August 26-30; National Society of the Army of the Philippines, at Council Bluffs, Iowa, on August 14-15; National Postmasters' Association, at Milwaukee, Wis., on August 26-29; and the National Negro Business League, at Richmond, Va., on August 25-27.

SOME CARTOON COMMENTS OF THE MONTH.



THE VIGIL.-June 26.

Silent it stands, the shrine within whose walls He was to give his kingly gage to-day; And silent on our hearts the sorrow falls Which only faith may stay.

Not for ourselves we mourn the moment's loss, Our pleasure darkened and our sun gone down; All thoughts are turned to where he bears the cross Who should have worn the crown.

So keep we vigil; so a Nation's prayer Humbly before the Eternal Heart we bring, That of His grace and pity God may spare And give us back our King!

From Punch (London).



"HAIL, KITCHENER! VICTOR AND PEACEMAKER."
From Punch (London).



"There's nobody gladder than I am, John!"
From the Journal (New York).



CHAMBERLAIN: "I beat the bush; he catches the bird."
From the Daily Eagle (Brooklyn, N. Y.).



"MY HAND IN SYMPATHY, JOHN." From the Inquirer (Philadelphia).



He finds his "old governor" (J. Bull) much broken in health and pocket.—From the $\it Times$ (Denver).



A VERITABLE GLOBE TROTTER. From the Commercial (New York).



AGUINALDO, THE FATHER OF HIS COUNTRY, WILL SAIL FOR THE UNITED STATES.

From the Tribune (Minneapolis).



UP A NOTCH HIGHER.
From the Tribune (Minneapolis).



FOURTH OF JULY CELEBRATION IN THE PHILIPPINES.
From the Daily Eagle (Brooklyn, N. Y.).



Senator Hanna exclaimed: "My opinion is, that we shall hear from the people in unmistakable terms."

From the Daily Eagle (Brooklyn, N. Y.).



"ONE MORE RIVER TO CROSS."
From the Ohio State Journal (Columbus).



MORE TROUBLE IN KANSAS.
From the Commercial (New York).



AFTER THE HORSE HAS GONE! From the Chronicle (Chicago).



FOLLOWING A HIGH EXAMPLE.

"The Coal Trust has just had its photograph taken in the graceful attitude of jumping a high fence on horseback."—
From the Journal (New York).



11

TO CUT THE ROPES IS SUICIDE. From the World (New York).



CAN HE HOLD ON UNTIL DECEMBER?
From the Ohio State Journal (Columbus).



Tom L.: "There's no harmony in that voice." BRYAN: "No; he never could sing, anyway."

From the Plain Dealer (Cleveland).



LOOKING FOR THE ISSUE.—From the Inquirer (Philadelphia).



THERE'S NO HARMONY IN THIS TRIO. From the Times (Minneapolis).

Drake University Library.

THE NEW BRITISH PREMIER.

BY A. MAURICE LOW.

ARTHUR JAMES BALFOUR is one of the most interesting and attractive actors in the world's great drama, and his career is more suggestive of one of "Ouida's" darling heroes, with a mixture of one of Disraeli's political creations, than that of a living English politician. Born fifty-four years ago in Scotland, the son of a commoner, although his lineage is older and better than that of half the peers of the realm. on his mother's side connected with the house of Cecil, whose head is his uncle, the Marquis of Salisbury, at nine years he was the heir, by the death of his father, to nearly 100,000 acres of land and a great income. Young Balfour was educated at Eton and Trinity College, Cambridge. Neither at Eton nor at Cambridge was he remarkable for scholarship. He left the university with a second class in moral science. At Cambridge he belonged to "Souls," a group of young men who languidly discussed transcendentalism and dabbled in metaphysics. Voltaire said, with his deplorable flippancy, a magazine writer remarked once, with Mr. Balfour as his theme, that when a man talked about what he did not understand to those who did not understand him, that was metaphysics. Voltaire may have been right. One thing is certain. Mr. Balfour, as schoolboy and undergraduate, gave no promise of the great things he was to do later. When twenty-six years old, he was elected a member of Parliament.

EARLY DAYS IN PARLIAMENT.

During the next few years he did little to distinguish himself from the rank and file, still less to make any one pick him out as a future prime minister. He was tall and very thin. His face His manner has been was long and pointed. described as lackadaisical. "He had in many respects the whole appearance and manner of the curate, who has been the butt of the caricaturists and the satirists for two generations," and, like the curate of caricature and satire, he found frequent consolation in the use of his pocket hand. In the House he "languidly sprawled" on the bench. He was in wretched health, and apparently marked for an early death. His whole manner was that of a man who was deadly bored with life, who lived because he had to, but who wished that the curtain would ring down as quickly as possible. His

manner was contemptuous rather than sneering. He had money, more money than he knew what to do with, but he indulged in no senseless extravagances, and his name was linked with no folly that united him with the mass of mankind. His life was so irreproachable that in sheer derision he was nicknamed "Miss Balfour" and "Miss Nancy." And yet no one looked upon him as a man devoid of intelligence. Five years after entering Parliament, when he was thirtyone years old, he wrote his first important book. and probably because he was a Cecil born north of the Tweed, it was a polemical work. "Defense of Philosophic Doubt" is not a book that can be dismissed in a sentence. not only great ability, but it also showed that its writer was a logician and a master of style. Written even by a lesser person than a Conservative member of Parliament connected by ties of blood with the Salisbury family, it would have attracted attention.

UNDER LORD SALISBURY'S TUTELAGE.

He had been serving his apprenticeship during those years. Either Lord Salisbury had the prescience to divine in his nephew the same qualities that were an inheritance of the common blood, or else it was pure luck that made him his political guardian. Whatever the reason, it was fortunate for both uncle and nephew; and this close connection between Balfour and Lord Salisbury, which began almost immediately after he entered the House, doubtless had much to do with the formation of his character. Lord Salisbury, who at that time held the seals of the Foreign Office, appointed him one of his private secretaries, and in that capacity he accompanied his uncle to the Berlin conference. In 1886. Mr. Balfour was elected Lord Rector of St. Andrews University.

Lord Salisbury went out of office, Mr. Gladstone came in, and in 1884 Lord Salisbury was once more called to the head of affairs. Lord Salisbury was always kind to his relatives; so kind, in fact, that the present cabinet has been dubbed the "Hotel Cecil," because of the numerous members of that powerful family, direct and collateral, who sit at the cabinet board. He made his nephew a privy councillor, which means much; and president of the local government board, which means little. It was quite the

natural thing to do. There was a young man to be provided with a place. It was of no consequence.

ADMISSION TO THE CABINET.

Lord Salisbury's lease of power was brief. Mr. Gladstone came back, with an equally brief tenure of office, and 1886 once more found Lord Salisbury prime minister. This time the favorite nephew was made Secretary for Scotland, with a seat in the cabinet. The politicians and the public gasped. It is true that the Secretary for Scotland has little to do; but a seat in the cabinet is the great prize for which all politicians strive, and cabinet portfolios are not flung about at random. Still the country took it good-naturedly. The British public is a tolerant public when it is ruled by an aristocrat. An incompetent more or less, provided he is well-born and respectable, makes little difference. It was during his short incumbency of the Scottish office that Mr. Balfour earned the reputation which clung to him after years of strenuous life. He lay in bed until noon, and received his official callers in a dressing gown. It is said of Lord Salisbury that he has not read a newspaper for thirty years. Mr. Balfour refused to read the newspapers. Friends and foes alike regarded him as a silken sybarite, as a dilettante who was too indolent to be great because of his vices, or vicious because of his greatness. He was in wretched health. His bedroom was littered with medicine bottles and pill boxes. About that time he consulted a leading London physician, who told him that what he needed was simply hard work, steady work, work that would keep both mind and body occupied.

THE IRISH SECRETARYSHIP.

Now a remarkable thing was done. It was either a flash of genius or else an audacious disregard of consequences that is the very sublimity of genius. Sir Michael Hicks-Beach, -the same Sir Michael who, only a few days ago, announced his purpose to retire from the chancellorship of the exchequer, -had resigned his post as Chief Secretary for Ireland. Those were the days of the Land League. Like his immediate predecessors in that thorny chair, he had been unable to stand the mental and physical strain. His last days in official life were marked by a terrific fight with the Irish members in the House of Commons. Broken down in health, mentally shattered, weary of the thankless task, seeing no possibility of making headway, he sought relief in private life. Lord Salisbury coolly announced to the country that his nephew, Arthur James Balfour, Secretary for Scotland, had been transferred to the more arduous and much more responsible post of Chief Secretary for Ireland. The public was at first incredulous, then amazed. The Irish members were stunned. The thing was too ridiculous to be believed. Then when they saw that it was true, they set up a howl of derisive delight. If Hicks Beach, veteran and robust man, had been crushed under the weight of Irish opposition, how much easier would it be to destroy this weakling, who lay in bed until noon, and looked at the world from behind his silken curtains with the ennui of a man who has long ago exhausted life?

Ireland had, for some years, been not only the graveyard of the reputations of politicians, but it had brought more than one politician to his grave. W. E. Forster, an honest man, physically rugged and mentally strong, with a great political reputation and a still greater political future, closed his career in the Irish office discredited and disheartened, and was forced into retirement: Lord Frederick Cavendish, a kind and genial man, fell beneath the hand of an assassin; Sir George Trevelyan went to Ireland with black hair, and returned from there, a few months later, with hair turned gray and his face seamed; Sir Michael Hicks-Beach retreated in the face of the enemy, his health broken; and yet, notwithstanding what had happened, apparently the most unsuitable man had been selected

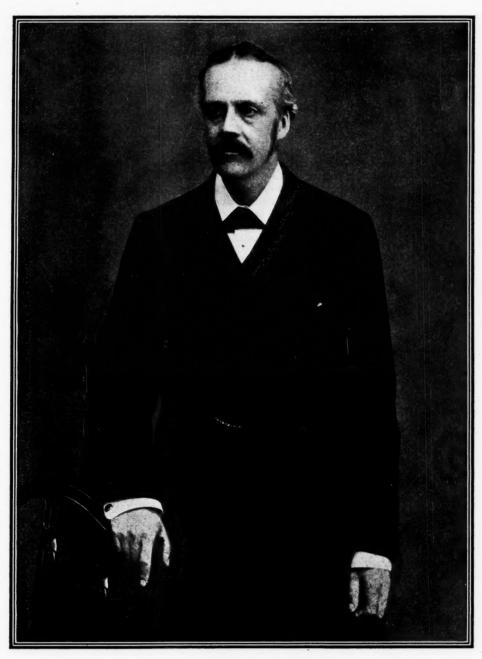
A REVELATION OF LATENT POWERS.

Irish howled with delight.

to do what other men, in every way better fitted,

had found to be impossible. No wonder the

There followed a very curious transformation. Mr. Balfour dropped the past like a garment which was out of fashion. Balfour, the dilettante, the "silk-skinned sybarite," the blase man, to whom existence itself was only a bore, the anæmic hypochondriac, ceased to exist. In his place there was a Balfour who was robust, vigorous, alert; a man of indomitable will, of great executive force, of such absolute command over himself that he met the most bitter taunts and the foulest abuse with a smile on his face that told nothing. From the moment that he took his seat on the Treasury bench, as Chief Secretary for Ireland, the Irish members exerted all their ingenuity to break him down. There was no word in their extensive vocabulary that was not hurled at him. A "palsied masher," a "perfumed popinjay," a "mollycoddle," were a few of the less opprobrious epithets used when speaking of him. He was taunted, reviled, threatened; every device that ingenuity could suggest was used to goad him into fury; every weapon that malice could invent was employed to wound him. He



THE RT. HON. ARTHUR JAMES BALFOUR.

never flinched. If he felt the sting, he never showed it. If his sensitive nature quivered under the agony, no man saw his suffering. He handled himself with such consummate ability, with such admirable sang froid, with such superb self-control, that he not only amazed his friends, but he made his enemies marvel. They, like all the rest of the country, were astonished at the miracle that had been wrought. It was David once more confronting Goliath.

A FIERY ORDEAL.

Night after night he stood up to his torture. One of two things must happen. Balfour must emerge from the conflict either victor or vanquished. There could be no middle ground. If he failed, his career was ended; but if he won, it would make him a leader of men, and no man could wrest from him leadership. He won. It was the one thing he had needed all his life, the one thing that was to bring out the very best that was in him. Rapidly, so rapidly that old parliamentary hands marveled, he acquired a quickness in debate, a keenness of thrust, a deftness of stroke, a strength of attack, that adversaries feared him. His mind was always logical, always subtle, always philosophical. Those were not qualities, it would seem, that would be effective in a House seething with passion, and yet they were the weapons that turned the illogical arguments of his opponents. Those were the weapons of attack. His weapon of defense, which like a coat of mail covered every vital spot, which left not even the tendon of Achilles exposed, was that cynical, contemptuous, indifferent air; that inscrutable face, that careless manner. And the change physically was as great as it was mentally. The fierce conflict was a positive tonic to him. He became strong and muscular. He was no longer the weakling.

QUALITIES OF MR. BALFOUR'S ORATORY.

From the American standpoint, Mr. Balfour is not a great or a pleasing orator. In him the House of Commons manner, -which a cynical observer has termed the worst manner in the world.—is abnormally developed. In America we are accustomed to our public men speaking with a fluency that tells of long training and careful preparation. In the House of Commons men speak with great deliberation because, -as the observer already mentioned has said,—a gentleman is always deliberate, and never in a hurry. The Englishman, when he addresses an audience, punctuates his words with many unnecessary and exasperating "ahs" and "uhs" and "ehs." Mr. Balfour's favorite attitude in speaking is to grasp the lapels of his coat with both hands. His voice

is strong and penetrating; it is often harsh; and sometimes, when he is vehement, it rises to something like a feminine scream. He is a tall. dark, wiry, muscular man, who dresses well. He no longer "languidly sprawls." His movements are graceful, without being affected. His speeches do not sound well to the man who has been used to American oratory, because of his provoking interpellations, and because he has a habit of reconstructing his sentences in the middle, but they make fascinating reading. They are models of style; simple, direct, effective; clear cut, convincing, cogent; remorselessly logical, intellectually something more than mere words or phrases. Always one feels that Mr. Balfour is moved by conviction, that he believes in his cause, that he champions it because it is a sacred thing. He once said of himself: "My mind is not made for the exposition of a bill on its first reading." It tells in a sentence the character of his mind. The man who can explain in detail an elaborate bill, who can go laboriously through every paragraph of an intricate measure, is, usually, a man too matter of fact to be gifted with imagination. It is said that Mr. Gladstone was the one man who could make a budget speech interesting, and that when he brought down the budget, the dullest and most uninteresting topic to the average member, who was unable to understand the intricate figures, and had still less inclination to do so, the House was crowded to hear the old man eloquent invest such unromantic subjects as income and expenditure with the magic of his voice and the charm of his imagination until they quickened and became sentient Mr. Balfour has not this gift. He is best as a debater. In the heat of debate, speaking on the spur of the moment, he is always eloquent, always self-possessed, always ready to seize the vital point. He is bland, sarcastic, polite, but his speeches rarely wound.

A MAN WHO NEVER LOST HIS TEMPER.

Lord Salisbury, when a member of the House, was famous for his biting wit. Mr. Balfour can be equally caustic, but is less given to "gibes and flouts and jeers," as Disraeli said of Lord Salisbury. Mr. Balfour prefers to make an opponent ridiculous by a neat turn rather than to be sarcastically brutal. On one occasion, when the volley of abuse from the Irish benches shocked the House, a Conservative member called an Irish member to order. Mr. Balfour, "languidly sprawling" on the Treasury bench, appeared an indifferent spectator while the power of the Speaker was being invoked, and then, resuming his speech as if there had been no interruption, said to the Conservative member: "Probably

my right honorable friend does not know that the language used by my honorable friend (referring to the Irish member who had abused him) is a term of endearment in his own country." Alluding to William O'Brien and his insatiable desire to always blacken something, he said: "Yesterday it was Lord Spencer's character, to-day it is his boots." It was this imperturbability, this cynicism, which encased him. and which made the bullets of his enemies rebound from his armor like peas fired at a battleship, this total disregard for what any one might say or do or think, that drove his opponents to madness, instead of their plot succeeding to make him rave. "If only he would lose his temper for a single instant," an Irish member once mournfully remarked. But he would not. It was during this time that, dining with Father Healy, he said: "Do the Irish hate me as much as their newspapers say?" "My dear sir." said Healy, "if they hated the devil only half as much as they hate you, my occupation would be gone."

PACIFICATOR OF IRELAND.

It is not necessary here to follow in detail his work in Ireland. Uncompromising, unflinching, undeterred, giving to every one of his subordinates the most loval support, and exacting from them the most loval obedience and exact compliance with his orders, "In the general opinion of his party," to quote an eulogist, "liberty had been restored to a country previously groaning under the coercion and oppression of a disloyal and illegal organization." T. P. O'Connor, certainly not a witness prejudiced in Mr. Balfour's favor, admits that he did his work well, even while questioning the efficacy of that work. But that tribute from a political opponent is significant of his power over men. He is no longer detested; on the contrary, as a political opponent wrote of him, "His popularity is at least as great on the Liberal side of the House as on the other." No one can have been brought into contact with him, either as leader of the House or as leader of the opposition, without recognizing the charm of a courteous urbanity which ignores all political differences. Mr. O'Connor also said of him, "His speeches are listened to with pleasure on both sides of the House."

CONSERVATIVE LEADER IN THE COMMONS.

For five years Mr. Balfour held his uncomfortable office. On the death of the Rt. Hon. W. H. Smith, he succeeded him as First Lord of the Treasury and leader of the Conservative party in the House of Commons. He had earned his right to leadership, and no one disputed it.

He had pacified Ireland. The old bitterness had passed away. The Irish, always generous to a brave foe, respected him for his courage and his fighting qualities, even if they disapproved his methods. There is nothing more remarkable in this remarkable man's career than to look back those five years and compare the beginning and the end of that period. The contrast is so striking that it almost passes belief. Former foes were now his friends. Abuse had given way to praise. No one now decried his talents or spoke of him with a sneer. They recognized in him a great man, and they saw in him the man who one day should fill the proudest position to which any Englishman not born in a palace may hope to attain,—the virtual ruler of an empire whose flag is in the seven seas. When his party went out of power he was the leader of the opposition: when Lord Rosebery yielded to a hostile majority, Mr. Balfour once more became the government leader, a place which he has surrendered to accept the still more responsible position of first minister. During these years he found the opportunity, in the midst of his distracting parliamentary labors, to write his most important theological work, "The Foundations of Belief."

A FRIEND OF AMERICA.

Mr. Balfour has always liked America and the Americans. He has always had many friends among leading men in this country, to whom he has extended graceful hospitality in London. Americans may feel sure that as premier he will do nothing to disturb the cordial relations that now exist between the two countries. Mr. Balfour has already given pledge of that. Prior to the outbreak of the Spanish war he was acting Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs, the condition of Lord Salisbury's health compelling him to take a vacation in France. It was while Mr. Balfour was in charge of the Foreign Office that France and Austria attempted to form a European coalition against the United States, in which the other powers of Europe stood ready to join if Great Britain would also become a member of the league. Mr. Balfour, without hesitation, not only declined the offer, but, on the contrary, let it be known that in case of hostile action on the part of Europe, Great Britain would be found supporting the cause of the United States. That ended the attempt to form a coalition. Probably because of his pro-Americanism, Mr. Balfour was at one time a strong bimetallist.

ART LOVER, LITTERATEUR, SPORTSMAN, AND SOCIAL FAVORITE.

He has developed into a most attractive personality. He is to-day the man most in demand

in London; and he is as popular with men as with women, with men of his own party and with men who face him across the aisle. To him the word "brilliant" properly applies. He is a many-sided man. An accomplished musician and passionately fond of music, in the days when the House was his purgatory, after adjournment, he hurried to Bayreuth to saturate his soul in Wagner and forget such trifling annoyances as Irish debates: a lover of art and the possessor of the largest private collection of Burne-Jones' works: a golfer who has been captain of that most famous organization, the Royal and Ancient Golf Club of St. Andrews, as well as the author of a treatise on golf; a cyclist, and the president of the National Cyclists' Union; a writer of books, and the reader of the best literature; an automobilist, and his own chauffeur; a brilliant conversationalist; a man so engaging that men perforce must be his friends; rich and well-born, it is not to be wondered at that he has been courted and flattered, that more than one woman has tried to bring him to her feet. But Mr. Balfour has resisted all snares. He is a bachelor. but not a woman hater. His house in London is presided over by an unmarried sister.

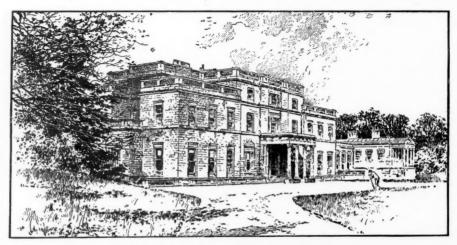
MR. BALFOUR'S HOME IN SCOTLAND.

Whittinghame, Mr. Balfour's magnificent estate in East Lothian, Scotland, has a romantic history attached to it. Whittinghame Castle was, according to tradition, given by the ill-fated Mary Queen of Scots to the Duke of Douglas, and it was there that Bothwell planned the murder of Darnley. The old castle is in ruins. The present residence was built by Mr. Balfour's grandfather. It is a very beautiful place, and is

in the heart of some of the most picturesque scenery in the south of Scotland. On one side are the wooded banks of the Firth of Forth; on the other, the romantic country made dear to all readers of the "Bride of Lammermoor."

TO BE THE REAL HEAD OF THE GOVERNMENT

It is never safe to prophesy, and it is especially unsafe to prophesy about so uncertain a thing as politics: but if one were so rash as to venture a prediction, it would be that Mr. Balfour, as prime minister, will be the leader of his party in fact as well as in name. He may transfer Mr. Chamberlain to the treasury; he may direct affairs from the quieter atmosphere of the House of Lords; but whether he remains in the Commons as First Lord of the Treasury, or goes to the Lords as Lord Privy Seal, his hand will hold the helm, and he will keep an especially watchful eye on his first lieutenant, the Rt. Hon. Joseph Chamberlain. For although Mr. Balfour is an aristocrat to his finger tips and a democrat at heart, -a strange mixture, but there has always been a contradictory streak in all the members of the race of Cecil,—he, like the rest of his party, has no love for Mr. Chamberlain, Mr. Chamberlain may be prime minister of Great Britain.—things much more strange than that have happened, -but Mr. Chamberlain will not have his darling ambition gratified so long as the house of Salisbury is powerful enough to prevent it. In other words, the day that Mr. Chamberlain comes into power will mark the decadence of the Salisbury influence in British politics. And with Mr. Balfour at the head of affairs, -vigorous, alert, able, -that day is not likely to be near at hand.



WHITTINGHAME HOUSE, MR. BALFOUR'S EAST LOTHIAN HOME.

SPOONER OF WISCONSIN.

A SKETCH OF THE PRESENT LEADER OF THE SENATE.

BY WALTER WELLMAN

CENATOR SPOONER is now looked upon as the most brilliant man in Congress. This appears to be the judgment of the country, and it certainly is the opinion held at Washington. The country's estimate of a public man may not agree with the Washington estimate. When they conflict, Washington is usually much nearer the mark. Washington is not a hero-worshiper. It is coldly critical; it studies at close range; it is behind the scenes. The country, on the other hand, is the audience which sits in front, and watches the performance upon the stage. There may be, and sometimes is, a glamour in its eyes; it sees an illusion rather than the man himself. It is comparatively easy to deceive the country. One good speech, spoken at the lucky moment, containing a few phrases which catch the popular fancy, may do it. But it is almost impossible to deceive Washington. In a sense, we at the national capital are all mental valets to the great men who assemble here, and if they win our respect and admiration, they must well deserve it.

The United States Senate has been called the greatest legislative body in the world. Probably If it has a rival, it will be found in the House of Commons. As the Commons dominates the legislation and policies of the kingdom, so the Senate dominates the governmental activities of the Republic. The man who rises to the first rank in a body like the Senate is a man of power. Only ten or a dozen of fourscore and a half form that select company. There are no weaklings among them. Accident or wealth may get a man into the Senate, but it will not get him into the inner circle. He who not only ob. tains entrance to this managing and leading coterie, but who comes to be recognized as the most brilliant, most useful, most powerful member of it, must have something in him which rises very nearly to the height of genius. It places him next to the President of the United States himself in actual potentiality in our government; and winning this station may be a greater credit to his intellectuality and character than the Presidency itself. Accident may take a man into the White House, but it cannot put him where John Coit Spooner stands to-day. In estimating the true meaning of this high place, we must remember that the Senate comes nearer to being the government of the United States

than any other part of the system. Of late years it has completely eclipsed the House of Representatives. To the President it is a sort of council of state,—a council which molds him much more than he molds it. The Senate is largely



SENATOR JOHN C. SPOONER, OF WISCONSIN.

controlled by this inner circle of a dozen men. Actual personal leadership it will not have. According to the ethics and traditions of that body, no man may aspire to such commanding influence in it as Speakers have wielded or chairmen of ways and means committees have enjoyed in the House. The Senate will recognize no captain, not even the President of the United States. It is a stickler for the theory of equality. Presumably one Senator is as good as another. But in practice there is the dominating inner circle; and, when one thinks of that circle, the first man who comes to mind is Spooner, of Wisconsin. This brings him as near to the leadership of the Senate as any man may hope to get.

Influence in the Senate is acquired in many

The popular impression appears to be that it is best won by making speeches. But that is not the case. Ability to talk well, to hold one's own in debate, is a desirable accomplishment. But it is not essential. Some of the most influential men in the Senate do not speak at all, or but rarely. Some of the best and most prolific talkers have little influence. The man who acquires a place of power in the Senate must possess, above all things, a cultivated mind, clear judgment, willingness to study, work and think, unselfishness, good feeling, the happy knack of being firm and even insistent without rousing personal antagonisms. There are few Senators who have all these qualities. The bane of the Senate, as it is the bane of all public careers at Washington, is the dominance of small things. Too many public men permit their constituents to make messenger boys of them. Their energies are frittered away in a constant vigil with pension bills, claims, office-hunting, and correspondence thereabout. Here and there is a Senator who frees himself from this thraldom of the little and gives his energies to real statesmanship. He studies big things. Of the comparatively small number of Senators who have thus broadened their horizon, Mr. Spooner is easily the most conspicuous. A large measure of his success is due to the fact that he rarely uses his energy or capitalizes his influence in the pursuit of trifles.

A PRACTICAL LEGISLATOR OF THE BEST TYPE.

In Congress, as everywhere, the tendency is toward specialization. Senators take up one line or another, become as proficient as possible in that, and give very little attention to other subjects. Mr. Spooner has never been a specialist. He has carefully avoided identifying himself with any particular topic or question. He is an "allaround" man. Everything of importance is his specialty. He is so willing to work, so eager to investigate, so tireless and so alert, and his sincerity and judgment are so highly valued, that all the specialists consult him. He is a sort of consultation doctor for all the legislative practitioners. It does not matter what it is, -Cuba, the Philippines, Porto Rico, our colonial policy in general, the Isthmian canal, war-tax reduction, finance, the tariff, -every chairman of committee who has an important measure to take in on the floor seeks the advice of the Senator from Wisconsin before doing so. As a lawyer and maker of laws, as a watchdog against the furtive slipping in of blunders, as a suggester of stronger and better methods, as a deviser of practical schemes which will meet existing conditions in the Senate and the country, he is without a peer

in public life. The natural result, — despite himself, and not at all through his seeking, — is that his finger is felt in nearly every big legislative pie. His impress is more or less upon every policy, every great act. Sometimes his work is known to the country, as in his happy solution of the Isthmian canal problem, but oftener it is not. He cares not who gets the credit, so the work is done, and done right. The writer could name half a dozen important provisions of law which were placed upon the scroll by Spooner, not one of which was he ever known, outside the Senate chamber, to have had any connection with.

THE MOST ENCYCLOPEDIC OF THEM ALL.

It follows, as a matter of course, that such a man is much sought; that other Senators are constantly running to him with their knotty problems; that to him come many opportunities to give his country the benefit of his talents. It follows, too, that he gains the respect and confidence of his associates. They find him unselfish, willing to help without demanding a price, and they trust him. They find his insight wellnigh infallible, and so they not only seek his advice, but accept and follow it. The range of his activity bespeaks the culture and the character of the man. When Mr. Foraker was to the fore with his Porto Rican government bill in the last Congress, he was glad to seek Mr. Spooner's aid. So with Senator Cullom, with his measure making a Territory of Hawaii. When Mr. Lodge was preparing his important measure establishing a civil government in the Philippines, Mr. Spooner was one of his most frequent counsellors. Thus it was also with Mr. Hanna, in his now famous campaign for the Isthmian canal. During his long and arduous struggle with the problem of Cuban reciprocity, Mr. Platt, of Connecticut, leaned heavily upon the arm of his friend from Wisconsin. There is no need to multiply instances. It is within bounds to say that no important measure reaches the statute-books, or even the calendar of the Senate, without having the hallmark of the active and sympathetic mind of Mr. Spooner stamped upon it in greater or less degree. He is not, of course, the only Senator who is thus industrious and valuable in council. There are others,like Allison, Platt, of Connecticut; Hale, Aldrich, Frye, Hanna, McMillan, Cullom, Burrows, Foraker, Fairbanks, Beveridge, Proctor, Elkins, -whose opinions are often sought. But, to some extent, each of these is more or less a specialist. Each is authority upon certain subjects in line with his training or bent. In the Senate, there is general recognition of the fact that Spooner is the broadest, the most cyclopedic of them all.

If we now add that Mr. Spooner's counsel is as eagerly sought at the White House as it is in the Senate, and as often accepted, we shall begin to understand the unique position which the Wisconsin Senator holds in the American Gov-While Mr. McKinley was President. few weeks passed in which Mr. Spooner was not asked to the White House for consultation. Throughout the trying days which immediately preceded the outbreak of the war with Spain. Mr. Spooner was one of the three or four advisers upon whom the hard-pressed President most eagerly leaned. Two or three of the scenes in the cabinet room at these evening conferences upon the weighty question of war or peace were of a dramatic character, and the manner in which Mr. Spooner demonstrated his moral courage and patriotism on at least one occasion will be worth a special chapter as soon as it shall be proper to publish the inside history of that period. Three Presidents of the United States, -Harrison, McKinley, and Roosevelt, - urged Mr. Spooner to accept places in their cabinets.

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A GREAT DEBATER.

As Mr. Spooner is strong and wise in council, so is he admirable in debate. It falls to the lot of few public men in America to shine in both fields of public activity, -first as framer of policies, and next as interpreter of them. There are a number of men in Congress who give the country excellent service in one or the other; among the very few who are successful in both, Mr. Spooner stands out preëminent. He is easily the first debater of the American Congress of our He is the recognized spokesman of the Republican side of the chamber. Sometimes he is the chosen representative in the Senate of the This does not mean that when administration. he speaks for his party he descends to the level of unblushing partisanship; nor does it mean that when he speaks for the administration he makes himself a mere mouthpiece. Into all his work he throws his individuality, -a characteristic vigor of thought and expression, an interpretation breathing his own practical, optimistic, typical American philosophy. He seems the boldest of the bold, but a vein of caution runs through everything he says. He upheld the Government in its efforts to assert American sovereignty in the Philippines, but he has never declared for eternal retention of that sovereignty. He upheld the doctrine of the free hand in dealing with conquered or acquired territory, without the hard-and-fast restrictions which the Constitution might impose if it must always accompany the flag, but he is opposed to making States of any of the non-contiguous territories.

In debate, Mr. Spooner well justifies the cognomen which has been given him. "The Little Giant." Small of stature, his ideas are large, He shows himself always a man who lives amid big questions and is at home there. That he is a debater rather than an orator appears from the fact that, unless he can stir the opposition to interruption and retort, he is not at his best. He deems himself luckiest when Senators on the other side of the chamber get up and go at him. It is when his steel strikes flint that the sparks fly most merrily. He is not content with sharp repartee, with witty or crushing rejoinder, though in these he is adept. Criticism inspires him to his loftiest flights. A case in point was near the last hour of the recent session, when unexpectedly a Philippine discussion was precipitated by the Democratic Senators. On the spur of the moment. Mr. Spooner was put forward to answer them. His answer rang true. It is believed to be the best thing he ever did. He completely silenced the guns of the opposition in a short speech which for years to come will stand as a model of that sort of debate.

Senator Spooner does not need to write out his speeches, and never does so. All his life is spent in preparation for meeting any emergency that may arise. He is always ready. the full man, who can tap himself at will. When he has a set speech to deliver, he gathers data, revolves it all in his mind, thinks out the order in which he will bring forward the various points. makes a few notes, and then forgets to refer to But the spring of his intellect never fails them. From it runs always a stream, clear and His English is simple, luminous, forcifresh. As he speaks it, so it is printed in the official "Record," with little or no revision. Three or four of the most noteworthy speeches heard in Congress in recent years have fallen from the lips of Mr. Spooner, and upon as many topics.

HOW SPOONER WON THE DAY FOR PANAMA.

One notable example of Mr. Spooner's skill as a legislative architect is found in the Isthmian canal bill which bears his name. A number of eminent and successful public men have said that they should want carved upon their tombstones no prouder epitaph than "Author of the Isthmian Canal Bill." That plan was an inspiration which came to Spooner's mind, he says, one day while he was riding to the capitol in a street car. He saw at a glance how he could devise what would appear like a compromise, and vet would not be one; how he could meet conditions as they existed in the Senate and secure results; how he could induce the Congress to declare for the superior route first and the inferior route next, at the same time placing in the hands of the President a club which would the more surely enable him to get the necessary concessions for the preferable project on fair terms. Senator Hanna has admitted that, but for Mr. Spooner's inspiration, the Panama route could not have won the victory.

HIS LIFE RECORD.

John Coit Spooner is a native of Indiana, where he was born January 6, 1843. While yet a lad, he removed, with his father's family, to Madison, Wis. He graduated from Wisconsin State University in 1864. Young Spooner entered the Civil War as a private soldier, served as captain, and was brevetted major. When twenty-four years old he was admitted to the bar, where he practiced for many years with notable success. He was for some time assistant attorney-general of the State, and in March, 1885, took his seat in the United States Senate. During his first term he attracted little attention, making but one notable speech. At the end of

that term he was succeeded by William F. Vilas, the Democrats having captured the Legislature. Mr. Spooner, however, received the full vote of the Republican legislators. In 1892, "the Cleveland year," he ran for governor, but was defeated. In 1897, he was elected to succeed Mr. Vilas in the Senate.

Senator Spooner is intensely devoted to his family; and, two years ago, Mrs. Spooner's health being threatened, and the climate of Washington not being good for her, the Senator wrote a letter declining reëlection. This letter has given rise to political complications in his State, and even now his return to the Senate is not assured. Mrs. Spooner's health has greatly improved, and there is a great demand throughout the country that he be reëlected.

Mr. Spooner is not yet sixty. He looks even younger. Vigorous in mind and body, virtually in his prime, admired and trusted, not ambitious, useful, a truly national figure and a national servant of the highest type, he should keep his place in the Senate for many years to come.

THE GEORGIA GOVERNORSHIP.

N June 7, the Georgia "primaries" were held. These primary elections are nothing more than the choosing by counties, -and by the white vote alone, -of delegates to the nominating convention, which is held a week later, and at which the nominees for the governor's seat and for other State offices are named. That all the candidates who have any showing in Georgia are Democrats goes without saying, as there is practically but one party in the State. From a group of contestants a single nominee is always selected, and the others immediately retire with good grace and unshaken loyalty to the old party. It is easily seen that when the delegates to this convention are named, which is done in the primaries, the governor is practically elected. Therefore, the Georgia primaries on June 7 settled the gubernatorial election matter in that State, the nominating convention on July 2 confirming the result. The Hon. Joseph M. Terrell has practically won his campaign for the governor's seat.

There were several popular candidates before the people. Indeed, in these Southern contests it is usually so. There can generally be counted the ubiquitous "editor in politics," who draws a strong newspaper following; the "plain farmer," who banks heavily on the rural vote; the temperance or general reform advocate, leaning upon the moral sentiment of the people at large;



HON. JOSEPH M. TERRELL.
(Democratic candidate for governor of Georgia.)

the lawyer who has in the past administered some public office with approval; and, after these, perhaps, a politician or two, pure and simple. One, at least, of these will also have served in the Confederate army, and the ballots of the veterans will go his way.

The recent group of aspirants for the governorship in Georgia was composed of very nearly these elements, and public favor was, therefore, greatly divided. But the two most conspicuous of the five contestants in the struggle proved to be Mr. Terrell, the successful man, and, after him, the Hon, J. H. Estill, of Savannah.

Colonel Estill was the "editor in politics" as well as the one-time Confederate soldier.—a



COL. J. H. ESTILL.

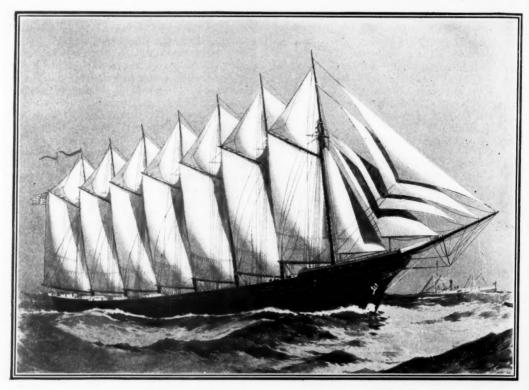
combination hard to beat, especially when, as in this case, the reputation established both in the field and in the sanctum was unassailable. He was scarcely of age when the Civil War broke out, but he immediately offered his services, and throughout the long conflict proved a worthy son of his native land. When the struggle ended, he came home impoverished, like most of his fellows, and began life anew. That he was able in a few years to achieve a competency, becoming, first, part owner, then editor and manager, later, editor and sole proprietor, of a paper so strong and important as the Savannah Morning News, proves him the possessor of both administrative and journalistic ability. He is very prominent, also, in other ways in his native

city, Savannah, being county commissioner, an influential member of the board of education, and chairman of the finance committee. Besides all this, his personal character is without reproach, and this has magnified his influence.

Colonel Estill's announcement of his candidacy was in itself refreshingly frank and simple. He opened with this ingenuous statement: "In compliance with the wishes of my friends and my own ambition to occupy that most honorable office, I have decided to be a candidate for the Democratic nomination for governor." Having kept himself free from political entanglements in the past, he talked no political jargon. "I have no platform," he declared, "nor do I think I shall promulgate one. The constitution and the laws are the platform on which the chief executive stands." Altogether, this editor in politics made a most interesting figure, and it was rather through the exceeding strength of his chief opponent than through anything that could be called weakness in himself or his campaign that he happened to come out second in the race.

This chief opponent, and now victor, the Hon. Joseph M. Terrell, has administered for the past ten years the office of attorney-general of Georgia, having only recently resigned this honorable position to enter the contest for the governorship. Mr. Terrell is still a young man, having celebrated his forty-first birth-anniversary on the fortunate day of the primaries. A Georgian of Georgians he is, like the now eminent Democratic leader, Congressman Griggs, Mr. Terrell's old schoolmate and friend. Both these strenuous young men are of the old pioneer stock from which statesmen have many a time been fashioned, have had their education in the common schools of the State, and their life-discipline in every-day paths of duty; both read law early, and became youthful practitioners in small Georgia towns, whence one has climbed to a seat of distinction in Congress and the other to the governor's chair at home.

When Mr. Terrell's hand shall grasp the helm of this important Southern State, two things besides the judicious discharge of a governor's ordinary duties are, by the clear record of his past, well-assured—ore, that the new educational movement in that State, the placing of her common schools upon a broader, sounder basis and the promotion of industrial and technical training, will be fostered and urged forward; the other, that the new manufacturing movement will meet with no check or hindrance which the governor can possibly remove. Every Southern State needs at this turn a governor of Mr. Terrell's stamp.



THE "THOMAS W. LAWSON," LAUNCHED AT QUINCY, MASS., JULY 10, 1902.

A SEVEN-MASTED SCHOONER LAUNCHED.

THE LARGEST SAILING SHIP AFLOAT.

N the same month, July, in which the New York arsenal completed for American coast defense the most powerful cannon ever built, the Fore River Ship and Engine Company launched at Quincy, Mass., the biggest sailing vessel that floats. The ship was all the more significant from the fact that it was a type totally new to the world, a seven-masted schooner. Two or three years ago a five-masted schooner was one of the marine wonders, two only being in exist-The seven-masted Thomas W. Lawson, launched on July 10, is not only a notable innovation from her size and her rig; the steel construction throughout and the use of steam power instead of man power marks the final departure from the old-fashioned wooden-timbered craft of the Maine shipyards. Even the masts of the Lawson, except the topmasts, are of steel; and so thoroughly are the six powerful steam engines adapted to the requirements of shifting

the sails and spars and lowering and raising the anchors and steering, that sixteen men only are a sufficient crew.

The hull of the Lawson is 403 feet long, with the steel bowsprit extending 83 feet farther, and has a beam of 50 feet. She carries 8,100 tons of cargo, and has a total displacement when loaded of 11,000 tons. The masts tower 150 feet above the deck, and carry 25 separate sails. Such a modern freighting schooner is fitted with conveniences that would seem luxurious indeed to the able seaman of a generation ago. Electric lights are everywhere that lights are needed, steam heats the cabins and works the pumps and the siren, while telephone lines connect the navigating departments with the engine room.

The Lawson will be used as a collier in the coasting trade at first, and her owners expect her to make a good profit on the cost of a quarter million dollars. Later she may go to the Pacific Ocean.

THE NEW GUN THAT SHOOTS TWENTY-ONE MILES.

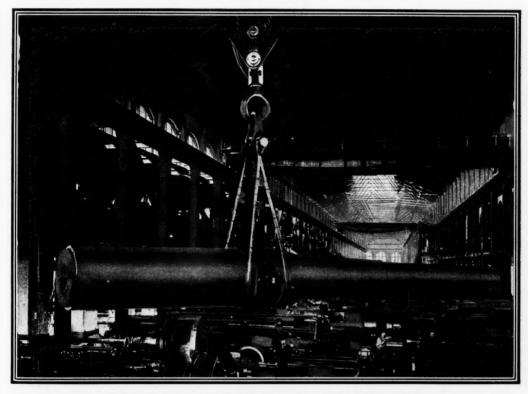
THE 16-inch breech-loading rifle just built at the Watervliet Arsenal for the defense of New York Harbor marks an epoch in the whole history of artillery warfare. The great cannon is half again more powerful than its nearest rival,—an English gun of 16.25-inch bore. It is one of a series of coast-defense guns provided for by the Endicott Board, appointed during Cleveland's first administration. Eighteen such rifles are to be mounted for the defense of New York City, ten for San Francisco, eight for Boston, and four for Hampton Roads.

Guns of larger caliber are in use in other countries; there is an Italian 17.76-inch rifle, a French gun of 16.5-inch caliber, and the Armstrong gun on the British battleships measures 16.25 inches. But the maximum energy of the new American gun is 88,000 foot tons, as against 45 per cent., 41 per cent., and 65 per cent. of

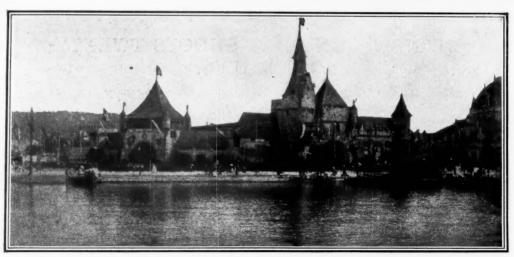
 this energy for the Italian, French, and English giants, respectively.

The most dramatic feature of the American rifle is its range. The greatest actual performance in long-range shooting is that of the Krupp gun, fired before the Kaiser in April, 1892, which carried about twelve and one-half miles. The new American rifle will have, theoretically, the amazing range of twenty-one miles. In other words, a warship carrying such a rifle could anchor in New York Harbor and throw projectiles into New Rochelle, or Paterson, or Hastings. In the course of its flight the shell would rise about six miles above the ground.

The monster gun is 49 feet 2.9 inches long, the projectile is 5 feet 4 inches long, with steel penetration of 42.3 inches. The cost of firing one shot is about \$1,000, and the weight of the rifle without the carriage is 126 tons.



THE NEW SIXTEEN-INCH GUN JUST COMPLETED AT WATERVLIET ARSENAL



THE BLOCH MUSEUM OF PEACE AND WAR AT LUCERNE.

M. BLOCH'S GREAT WAR MUSEUM AT LUCERNE.

IEAN DE BLOCH being dead vet speaketh to the world, and will continue to speak through the Museum of War and Peace which he has created on the shores of the Lake of Lucerne, and which was opened on Saturday. June 7, by M. Passy in the presence of an assembly of the friends of peace of all nations. The distinguished founder, whose marble bust, surrounded with laurels, stands in the great hall of the museum, was represented by his son, M. Henri de Bloch, his widow, Madame de Bloch, and her two daughters, the Countess Koscielska. whose husband is a conspicuous figure among the Polish members of the Prussian Herrenhaus, and her widowed sister, Madame Holvnska. One of their guests made the remark, that the late benefactor had after his death added to the benefits he had conferred upon the world by making the members of his brilliant and accomplished family better known to the leaders of Western thought and progress. To this may be added the further observation that he has still further increased the debt which we owe him by reminding us of the continued and indestructible exist. ence of the Poles among the family of nations.

A Russian chronicler once bitterly complained that for centuries Russia was hidden from the eyes of mankind behind the two menacing specters, the Pole and the Tartar, which enveloped her on the West and on the East. The same remark, with variations, may be made about Poland to-day. The nation which formerly obscured Russia from the sight of the West has, for

more than a hundred years, disappeared between Russia and Prussia. The busy nations on the seaboard had almost forgotten the existence of their Polish sister. Since the days when "Freedom shrieked when Kosciusko fell " few Polish names have imprinted themselves upon the Western mind. But the Poles, although over. looked, persisted in existing, in cherishing their faith, in pursuing their national culture. Cut off by their partition from the possibility of exercising any influence as a political state, they threw themselves into other pursuits. They made their provinces the most prosperous region in Russia. They throve so much in Posen that the Kaiser and his Chancellor have emitted cries of alarm. the one over the fecundity of the Polish "rabbits," while the other proclaims that "Polish arrogance is resolved to encroach upon German. ism." In Austria they have shown their capacity to govern the semi-autonomous province of Galicia. But the dim myriads of peasants and artisans, of merchants and manufacturers, might have existed for generations without making any impress upon the imagination of the world if no man had arisen capable of shivering the gloom with the lightning of his genius.

Such a man Poland at last produced in Jean de Bloch. At a time when another Polish genius, Sienkiewicz, was emulating Sir Walter Scott in reviving the almost-forgotten romance of his country's past, Jean de Bloch arose to compel the recognition by the world of the great and luminous idea by which he was able to cast a gleam of hope and inspiration upon the somewhat somber horizon of the future. Sienkiewicz reproduced the past, but Jean de Bloch incarnated the present, and foresaw the future. In him the world saw Poland once more a living, healthy, thinking, inspiring force in the circle of the nations.

Jean de Bloch was a seer, a seeing man in the midst of the blind. He saw that we had passed through a period in which, almost unconsciously, such a revolution had been effected in the methods of warfare as to render war on a large scale practically impossible. He saw the truth, and proclaimed it abroad in the hearing of the world. At first his message fell upon deaf ears. His zeal was redoubled by the indifference of the unseeing multitude. He wrote, he spoke, he spared neither time nor expense in order to drive conviction into the minds of his contemporaries. At last he found a hearing. Some dim perception of his great discovery dawned upon at least one master of many legions. Then came the Hague Conference, and M. de Bloch found in that international parliament an admirable field for the preaching of his message. After the Conference came the war, which went so far to verify all M. de Bloch's contentions that it was no paradox to say that Mr. Chamberlain's name may live in history solely because he was the author of a war which verified the hypotheses of M. de Bloch.

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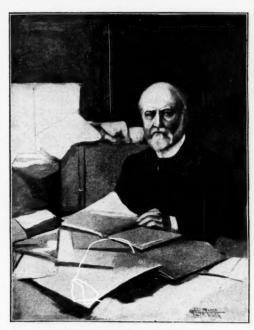
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To embody in a great museum a permanent, visible, and tangible object-lesson, M. de Bloch set on foot during the late war the foundation of a great Museum of War and Peace, which would embody and illustrate the truth which he sought to teach. Unfortunately, death smote him before he was permitted to see the fruit of his labor. His place was taken by his son, who completed the work which his father had begun. Hence it was possible for M. Passy, on June 7, to open the picturesque building which has been reared on the shore of the Lake of the Four Cantons to provide house-room and exhibition-space for the contents of M. de Bloch's museum.

The interior of the museum is in a state which is at once very finished and very unfinished. The building, being a temporary one, to be reconstructed in six years, is a series of vast sheds, some divided into compartments, each of which is devoted to a different country or a different age. The floors are not yet paved, and nothing in the way of permanent decoration has been attempted. On the other hand, the collection of exhibits,—and that is the chief thing,—is very complete, very interesting, and very varied. In the large entrance hall the first thing that strikes the eye is a bust of the late M. de Bloch, surrounded with palms and flowers, and looking out upon the vast collection of arms which he had



THE LATE M. JEAN DE BLOCH.

collected from all parts of the world. The room. indeed, contains specimens of every weapon employed by man since he first took to slaving his brother with flint arrow-heads. There are two very remarkable-looking hooped brass cannon. cast in the fifteenth century, a bristling little forest of Swiss pikes with which the herdsmen and burghers of Switzerland destroyed the chivalry of Austria, suits of armor from the Middle Ages, rockets used in 1870, Maxim guns of the latest type, targets showing the effect of bullets and shells fired at various ranges, -everything, indeed, directly or indirectly connected with armaments new and old is to be found here. This is the mechanical side of war. The pictorial side is even better shown in the gallery of dioramas, the entrance of which is behind M. de Bloch's bust. The tableaux here are about eight in number; and they are admirably painted by scenic artists of repute, the foregrounds being skillfully built up of real objects. Here the tactical methods of the wars of the past and present are contrasted, the difference in formation being clearly shown. The Swiss defending their mountain passes, the Russians attacking Plevna in the snow, the British methods of attack in South Africa, are all admirably put together, and the tableau of a battlefield by night is worthy of Verestchagin.

But these two rooms take up only a small por-

tion of the museum. The mechanism, science, art, and statistics of war are shown in equal detail in a number of other rooms and galleries. The collection of models of battlefields is very large, and very scientifically arranged. Several compartments of the room in which these are contained are devoted to tactics and strategy, and the visitor can examine the methods of Alexander and Cæsar within a few paces of diagrams and models showing the methods employed in South Africa. In another room may be read on the walls the text of important international treaties, a useful and instructive lesson of the futility of the policy of "Never again" in the days gone by. Running out of this room,



MADAME DE BLOCH.

and ending on the other side of the entrance hall. is a long gallery divided into compartments. In one may be seen depicted pictorially and by means of models "Fortress Warfare in Ancient and Modern Times;" in the next is a collection of human and animal relics of the battlefields, in the shape of skulls and skeletons. To show the various types of injuries to the bone inflicted by bullets at different ranges is the chief object of this collection; a horse's skeleton bears testimony to the extreme difference in the character of wounds which results from a change of range. There is a section devoted to naval warfare, with pictures of ancient and modern ships, the strength of navies of different powers, and the naval budgets of Europe and America being shown by means of diagrams. Finally, there is a good-sized



M. HENRI DE BLOCH AND HIS SISTER, MADAME HOLYNSKA.

auditorium, where it is proposed to give lectures with the cinematograph on all subjects of interest to those engaged in the study of the problems of modern war. A library of war and peace will also be established.

But this does not exhaust the interest of the museum. The grounds at the back and sides of the building are devoted to displaying some of the mechanism of war on a full scale. There are sections of trenches of various types, open, covered in, and protected from assault by those terrible wire networks which the late M. de Bloch loved to insist upon as one of the strongest weapons of modern defense. And, finally, there are short sections of various types of military

bridging material.

Altogether the museum is very complete and very interesting. It is not too technical to puzzle the casual visitor, while it is scientific enough to satisfy the serious military student. Controversial matters are kept in the background, -facts, as the late M. de Bloch used to insist, being the best of arguments. The best evidence of the combined popular and scientific character of the museum is that, while it was founded by the energy and initiative of a civilian, its board of management contains several military names of distinction. The union of two, too often inimical, classes in the cause of peace is a good omen for the future of the museum, and certainly nothing has been left undone to make the whole institution as attractive as it is instructive.



HARVEST SCENE ON A TEXAS RICE FARM.

THE NEW RICE-FARMING IN THE SOUTH.

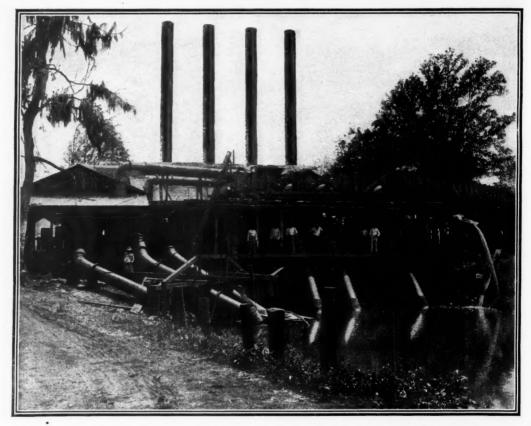
BY DAY ALLEN WILLEY.

'HE story of the "rice belt," which extends four hundred miles through southern and central Louisiana and southeastern Texas, from the banks of the Mississippi to beyond the Brazos River, varying in width from twenty to fifty miles, is not unlike the story of wheat-growing Kansas. Here also is the prairie, with its scrubby vegetation which pastured the few herds of cattle and ponies owned by the natives, who little realized its possibilities. In fact, the great natural reservoir which lies beneath was only discovered by accident, after the pioneer Western settlers, by some freak of fortune, had ventured into the country, determined to discover what elements of wealth lay beneath the sod. Quick to perceive that the rice plant flourished even with the crude and scanty cultivation it received, they abandoned the intention of raising other grains, but applied methods to which they were accustomed in preparing the soil, seeding, and nurturing. Water they collected in reservoirs dug with plough and shovel. Their efforts were rewarded by harvests so abundant as to repay them in spite of the frequent failure of the reservoirs and the loss of a year's work by drought. The method of irrigation was changed; the native growers emulated their example, and discarded the primitive modes they had followed. The magnet of success attracted settlers not only from the middle West, but from far-away New England and New York, and even the hardy Swede and Norwegian from Minnesota. Just as clusters of cabins in Kansas

and Nebraska have become towns and cities, and tract after tract of range land has been converted into an island sea of waving grain by the tide of humanity flowing out upon the plains from the East, so this Southern soil has been taken up and is being changed from one of the great waste places of the continent into a center of productiveness.

THE IRRIGATION PROBLEM.

Since the pioneers in this movement located in the belt eighteen years ago, 350,000 acres have been reclaimed for rice culture, and 50,000 acres vearly are being added.—not extensive when contrasted with the wheat and corn fields, but representing, acre for acre, far greater outlay in money and effort, for every square foot must be irrigated during the growing season, necessitating a network of canals aggregating fully 1,200 miles, to say nothing of the labor involved in walling the fields to hold the water, all of which the wheat or corn planter avoids. To go further into statistics, the 30,000 rice growers have invested \$20,000,000, represented by their lands. canals, and machinery; yet their operations have been confined to a few corners of the land believed to be productive. The statistician has estimated that 4,000,000 acres have a natural supply of water to be obtained by piercing the earth's crust to the reservoir beneath or from the streams intersecting the country. The area under cultivation already yields 2,000,000 barrels, re-



A TYPICAL PUMPING STATION TAKING WATER FROM WELLS AND STREAMS AND ELEVATING IT TO THE HEAD OF THE CANALS.

quiring 10,000 cars to transport it to market. It supplies two-thirds of the quantity consumed in the United States.

THE MODERN PROCESS OF RICE GROWING.

Modern ideas and systematic methods attend the culture of the grain from seedtime until it leaves the field to be sorted and prepared for the market. The grower may till 50 or 5,000 acres; but about each tract the bank of earth is carefully thrown up by the ditching plough, frequently "tamped" on the inside with spade and shovel to prevent leakage. The horse drill and cultivator can be used in seeding, while furrows are turned as in an ordinary field intended for wheat or oats. Water flows upon the shoots when a few inches out of ground, and until harvest time in early autumn the country is turned into a series of lakes, for the plant roots must be continuously submerged, three or perhaps four months, to a depth of two or three inches.

Every acre is a great sponge absorbing 14,000 to 15,000 gallons every 24 hours, yet when the grain nears maturity, and the water is drained from it, evaporation is so rapid that the farming machines can pass over the fields without difficulty in a few days. Then the scene is strikingly typical of harvest time in Kansas or the Dakotas. No less than 5,000 harvesters, actually doing the work of 200,000 men, sweep through the mile after mile of golden stalks, for by a few alterations the mechanism which cuts and binds the sheaves of wheat ready for the stack without human aid has come to the assistance of the rice growers. The steam thresher following converts the chaff and straw into mammoth stacks, pouring the white kernels into a hundred bags in a day.

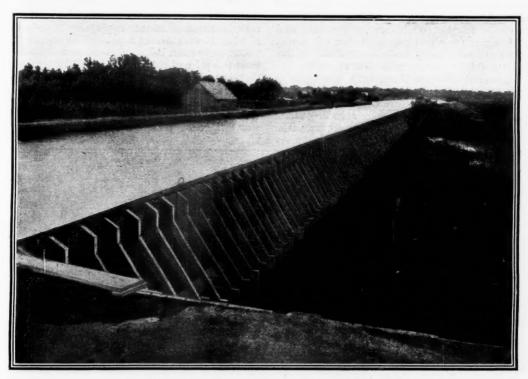
The tendency toward economical and intensive farming is everywhere apparent,—it is not how great an area can be cultivated, but how much it can be made to yield. A study of the methods

reveals one of the secrets of the remarkable success attained by these men who have ventured into an unknown territory to engage in an equally unknown means of securing a livelihood. Necessity aided by experience, some of it bitter in the extreme, taught them to husband their time and labor. They studied every source of expense to ascertain if it could not be reduced. They did not confine their investigation to the farming processes alone. Realizing the outlay for transportation and commission in sending the rice to a distance to be prepared for market, they built mills in sight of the fields which clean, polish, and separate the cereal into its marketable grades. But the greatest economic factor is this wonderful subterranean sea, which, scientists say, contains a water supply that cannot fail. These "waters under the earth" are held in gravel strata having a foundation of hard clay, which the well-borer's tools reach at distances ranging from 100 to 200 feet below the surface. To fill the canals from well and stream one of the most extensive pumping systems in the world has been constructed. 500 plants distributed throughout the district. A single station filling one of the larger canals could serve the needs of a city, as it lifts 60,000

to 75,000 gallons a minute the 30 feet or 40 feet to the conduit level. The canals reaching the larger rice fields range from 20 to 30 miles in length, sustaining a volume of water 100 feet in width and five to six feet in depth. From the main or feed channels are excavated branches which connect directly with the fields. Wooden aqueducts or flumes are extensively employed to carry the water across valleys and for waterways at the source of supply in order to give sufficient elevation to create a rapid current. During the flooding season these arteries of nourishment enhance the artistic effect of what is in truth an attractive landscape, gleaming like ribbons of silver in the sunlight and presenting a striking contrast to the masses of luxuriant green which later turns to gold. It is a picture which pleases the æsthetic and the material sense alike, for it is a picture of plenty and prosperity only to be appreciated by one who has spent a day or a week in the rice belt.

PROFITS OF THE SMALL GROWER.

The production of this cereal in the Southwest has long since passed the experimental stage, and the man who wishes to become a rice farmer can



ORDINARY EXCAVATED CANAL AND AQUEDUCT OR FLUME CANAL.



PREPARING FOR SEEDING.

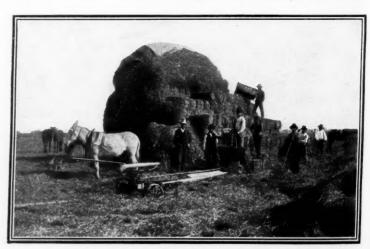
secure an ample fund of statistics from any of the various centers to enable him to calculate closely on the cost of tilling a tract of 10, 100, or 10,000 acres, for he can find companies who have invested half a million dollars to purchase and prepare "farms" of the last-named size for the industry, but the majority of the growers have confined their individual effort to 50 or 100 acres. Taking a group of the hundred-acre projects and averaging the results, the expenses are as follows: Ploughing and cultivating, \$4 an acre; seeding, \$3.50; harvesting, threshing, and hauling crop to mill or railroad station, \$5. Levee work and other items swell the total cash outlay of "making" the crop to \$20 an acre. The owner contracts with the irrigation company to furnish sufficient water for the season for onefifth of the yield, unless he controls his waterworks, which for a hundred-acre farm cost from \$1,000 to \$1,500. The harvest, of course, varies

considerably. It may be 10 barrels of 162 pounds each to the acre. A specially favorable season may increase it to 15 barrels. The price, too, fluctuates. Basing it at \$3.50 per barrel for the minimum yield, the farmer obtains \$800 from his rice alone. Deducting interest at 6 per cent, on the cost of his land at \$20 an acre, taxes, and insurance, he nets a profit of \$600. But to this he can add \$500. the value of the straw and bran left after threshing. Thus 50 per cent. of the original land value may be paid by the proceeds of one year's harvest. Usually

enough vegetables, perhaps fruit, are raised for the family supply, and the tendency to diversity is becoming yearly more pronounced; for the energetic grower has an opportunity to produce some other staple during the half-year when the rice is not under cultivation. The profit may average nearer \$25 or \$30 an acre from all sources of income than the estimate given.

CAN AMERICA COMPETE WITH THE ORIENT?

Stimulated by their success, the aim of these ambitious agriculturists is to place the American rice belt in as dominant a position as the corn, wheat, and cotton belts. "As the South regulates the price of cotton in the world's market, the day will come when we shall dictate the rice market as well," is the universal sentiment. Although readily disposing of the bulk of their staple at home, they have already entered Europe; and with an opportunity to sell on equal terms



AT THE END OF THE HARVEST, SHOWING THE GREAT STRAW STACKS.

with their Oriental competitors, they are sanguine of attaining their object. The claim that this prairie land will produce grain at a lower cost than even Asiatic fields is well founded by comparing the average yield per acre and the time

and labor required. The Japanese is content to till his plat at one-sixth of the wages paid the laborer in Louisiana and Texas. but one American with his irrigation system and machinery can cultivate a hundred acres in a year where his eastern competitor, depending upon natural flood. ing and hand tools, can work but three-fourths of an acre. Every rice expert is familiar with this fact, and it is one of the sources of the general optimism that prevails. No one can predict the limit of future success.



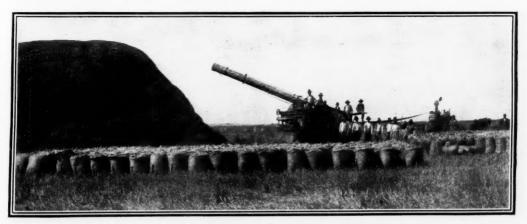
The cooperation so apparent throughout the territory is another feature of interest. Everywhere is to be found an interdependence, so to speak. The producer is not merely the landowner and farmer, but a stockholder in the irrigation company, while he patronizes another company, harvesting and threshing his crop, that represents an alliance of his neighbors. As he accumulates a surplus he becomes part owner of one of the adjacent rice mills. If a bank is chartered in the neighboring town, he subscribes to its stock, perhaps takes a partnership in one of the mercantile enterprises. Thus are his in-

terests so diversified that the general prosperity is of as vital importance to him as the extent of the harvest itself. The economy of this plan is at once apparent in a reduction of expenses in raising and preparing the crop for market. The



RICE THRESHING OUTFIT.

bulk of the money received is held at home and distributed in local channels, benefiting those directly or indirectly interested in the main and dependent industries. The yearly extension of the area under cultivation and the consequent enlargement of the irrigation system broaden the market for necessary machinery and supplies and require additional labor. These evidences of prosperity offer inducements to immigration, not only to the agricultural element, but to the merchant and the capitalist, who realize the future of the locality and the prospective growth of its cities and towns. A stimulus has been given railroad building as well; for not only must means of transportation be afforded for the



THE "LONG TOM" STEAM THRESHING OUTFIT IN THE FIELD.

yearly harvest, but for the miscellaneous articles

required in town and country.

The communities which have been created include notable illustrations of the general cooperation. Townsfolk and countryfolk, alike interested in their growth, have joined in adopting plans which they hope will culminate in important cities. Indeed, some have already increased so rapidly in population and business as to rightfully deserve this title. Here is another parallel to the development of the West, for instances are known where they have originated from a nucleus of a few huts; others were born on the bare prairie, not even a tree to mark the site. The city of Crowley is a typical community. When its streets and avenues were laid out with tripod and sextant not a building stood upon the land, nor was a spear of rice growing within miles of it, but the promoters had such faith in the future that when the Southern Pacific Railway Company refused to stop its trains at a "station" in the open country, they moved a shed to the town site from an adjacent settlement, engaged a ticket agent at their own expense, and offered the building and the agent's services to the company if it would consider the

place as one of its depots. It reluctantly agreed. Next they succeeded in getting a colony of Germans to locate here, then they began excavating with their own hands the first irrigation canal in the Southwest, assisted by the colonists. From the half-mile used to flood the first rice field in 1894, it has been enlarged to 10 miles in length and 40 feet in width. The colony and the canal developed the "one-building" town into a city of 7,000 inhabitants, with courthouse, public schools, churches of the principal denominations, opera house, three banks, eight rice mills, and a score of pretentious business blocks. From its mills a million barrels of rice are sent annually to market, while its merchants serve a territory forty miles square. Throughout the belt, and far away in eastern Texas, can be found other examples of equally rapid urban growth, but these people are building for the future as well as for the present, and it can be said in all sincerity that they are forming a civilization out of this semi-wilderness that rests on a broad and permanent foundation composed of education, religion, patriotism, and the type of modern vigorous Americanism to which the great West, their example, owes so much of its prosperity.



LOADING RICE STRAW AT THE END OF THE HARVEST.

ENGLAND'S GREATEST LIVING ARTIST: GEORGE FREDERICK WATTS.

BY W. T. STEAD.

"I often think that in the future, and in stronger hands than mine, art may yet speak as great poetry itself, with the solemn and majestic ring in which the Hebrew prophet spoke to the Jews of old, demanding noble aspirations, condemning in the most trenchant manner prevalent vices, and warning in deep tones against lapses from morals and duties. There is something more to be done in this way, I believe, than has yet been done."—

Extract from a Letter from Mr. G. F. Watts to Miss Julia Cartwright.

'OR many years Mr. Watts has been employed in modeling a colossal equestrian figure typical of Energy and Foresight. It represents an explorer mounted upon a noble steed which he has tamed, and who, having arrived at the summit of a mountain, shades his eyes from the sun with his hand, as he looks out upon the vast unknown lands awaiting his discovery and con-This magnificent symbolic statue has been given by Mr. Watts to Rhodesia. now being cast in bronze, and will soon be on its way to the Matoppos, where it will be erected as the tribute of England's greatest living painter to Africa's greatest son. The figure is purely symbolical, and is in no sense a portrait of Mr. Rhodes; but it will stand on that lofty tableland looking out northward to the interior of Central Africa not yet spanned by the Cape-to-Cairo railroad. Mr. Rhodes stood to Mr. Watts for his portrait, and although they met only in the last year of Mr. Rhodes' life, the interview deepened the admiration and affection with which Mr. Watts had ever regarded Mr. Rhodes. The two men differed enormously, but they were alike in being idealists of the first water. Both spent their lives in making their ideals visible to mankind. They labored in very different materials, -Mr. Watts in the pigments with which he made his canvases visions of dream-like beauty; Mr. Rhodes in the roaring loom of time, founding commonwealths and rearing and wrecking empires. Mr. Rhodes has gone; Mr. Watts remains, the greatest of all the Victorians who still survive among us.

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Mr. Watts and Mr. Herbert Spencer, both octogenarians, linger among us, reminding a puny generation that there were giants in those days. Mr. Herbert Spencer is a philosopher whose writings have profoundly influenced thoughtful men throughout the world. Mr. Watts is an artist whose pictures have appealed to a much wider public. It is perhaps no exaggeration to say that he is, all things being considered, the greatest of all living Englishmen.

Compared with his renown, the fame of the King cannot for a moment compare. Kings are the best advertised of mortals, for limitless advertisement is one of the most precious privileges of the monarchy. But Mr. Watts, who is a monarch in the realm of art, sways a far more potent scepter in his brush than the bejeweled staff which will be placed in the hand of Edward VII. at the Abbey.

Nor is it only that Mr. Watts is the supremer genius. He has only displayed throughout the whole of his career a sense of public duty which, unfortunately, is rare among mortals. No artist of our time has so much regarded himself as the servant of the people. No one has so lavishly given of his best without fee or reward to those whom he wished to serve. He has, indeed, been true to his own conception of the prophetic mis sion of the artist. As Mr. Rhodes left his millions to the promotion of his ideals, so Mr. Watts has bequeathed the bulk of his allegorical pictures to the nation, together with the portraits of distinguished Englishmen whom he had painted in the last half century. When he was a comparatively young man he painted the north side of the great hall in Lincoln's Inn, executing this fresco, which is 40 feet high by 45 feet long, without any remuneration. But how far he was in advance of his generation may be inferred from the fact that he offered the directors of the London & North-Western Railway to decorate the station at Euston with frescoes illustrating the history of the world; and although he proposed to do this at his own expense, his offer was rejected!

"In early days," said Miss Cartwright, in a charming essay which she wrote for a special issue of the Art Journal some years ago, "the young artist dreamt of building a great temple or house of light, with wide corridors and stately halls, containing a grand series of paintings on the mysteries of life and death. That dream, alas! was never destined to be realized, so we shall never have a Sistine Chapel adorned by the hand of our own Michael Angelo."

But, although Mr. Watts was not able to carry out that splendid idea, he has painted many pictures which, in his own words, suggest great thoughts that will appeal to the imagination and the heart, and kindle all that is best and noblest in humanity. In his later years he has painted pictures illustrative of heroism in humble life. But space would fail me to recount all his benefactions to the nation. A book containing reproductions of all his paintings, with a narrative telling the story of all the themes which have kindled his imagination and stimulated his genius, would embody most of the great traditions of our English history, Scripture history, and the myths of ancient Hellas have all appealed to him, and he has touched nothing that he did not adorn. But I have no intention of writing upon Mr. Watts or his art. It was my privilege last month to spend a day at Limnerslease, and to hear from the lips of the "old man eloquent" his ideas and aspirations, which I now place on permanent record for the instruction and edification of my readers.

Mr. Watts is in his eighty-sixth year. Although he is so advanced in years, he carries himself erect, and his eyesight is undimmed. He uses no glasses, walks without a stick, and until the last three or four years he was known as one of the best riders in Surrey. Eleven years ago he bought a small piece of ground on the southern slope of the Hog's Back, between three and four miles from Guildford. There he erected Limnerslease, an ideal artist's house, laid out the grounds around it, and created for himself a terrestrial paradise, with a spacious studio, admirably lighted, in which he is to be found at work every morning at sunrise. As he rises with the sun, he goes to bed with it, -at least in summer-time, when he is often up and at work with his pictures or his statues as early as 3:30 o'clock in the morning.

THE OCTOGENARIAN'S SECRET.

And what is the secret of this extraordinary longevity, or rather unabated vitality? Many men vegetate when they are as old as Mr. Watts, but how few there are whose natural force is unabated, and who preserve in old age the vigor, the skill, and the enthusiasm of youth!

"What is the secret, Mr. Watts?" I said.

"I have always been very sickly," was the painter's somewhat paradoxical reply. "From my earliest years I have never been robust; and, indeed, for this reason I was compelled to refrain from most of the violent exercises of youth. I neither drank nor smoked,—nor did anything, in fact. I am a very negative sort of a person. I have just lived,—with the exception, of course,

of my work. But although I have been successful, far beyond anything I ever hoped when I began life, I cannot say that the joy of life has ever been mine. I enjoy my work; I am intensely interested in it, and am continually endeavoring to improve, for," said Mr. Watts, with a delightful smile, "if I don't improve now, when shall I ever have a chance of doing so? What I mean is that the buoyant exuberance of animal spirits, which leads many people to rejoice in life for the mere sake of living, I have never known.

HIS CONCEPTION OF DEATH.

"Nor have I ever shrunk from death, In my works I have endeavored to destroy the fear of Death, to cause him to be regarded, not as a dread enemy, but as a kindly friend, and such has ever been my feeling. I should, of course, regret to leave work undone, and to part with those friends whom I love, but a sense of the weariness of the world and the suffering and sadness which seem to be inherent in mortal things, have weakened if not destroyed that joy of life which is common to most young things. The condition of things in this world, so far as I can see it, full of suffering and sorrow, saddens me. I feel it might have been so much better arranged in many things, and the burden of it weighs upon me. That is one reason why I feel that every theological student, before he applies himself to theology, should be thoroughly grounded in physiology. Too often theologians seem to regard the body with contempt, not to say dislike.

THE RELIGION OF THE BODY.

"To live a healthy life," continued Mr. Watts, "to have the body in which your soul dwells in good working order,-that is surely the first duty of the religious man. How many generations have lived and died in the belief that, piety consists in the maceration of the body, and in spending many hours upon their knees crying to God to do this, that, and the other for them. Instead, how much better it would have been if they had looked after their own health and looked after their neighbors'. In the long run, the body avenges itself upon the soul which neglects or abuses its habitation. Being naturally sickly, I had orders to take care of my body. I have never smoked. Greater things were done in the world, immeasurably greater, before tobacco was discovered than have ever been done since. The cigarette is the handmaid of idleness. I do not say that possibly it may not be a sedative to overwrought nerves, but overwrought nerves in themselves are things that ought not to be. Of wine I have taken very little. In my earlier years I

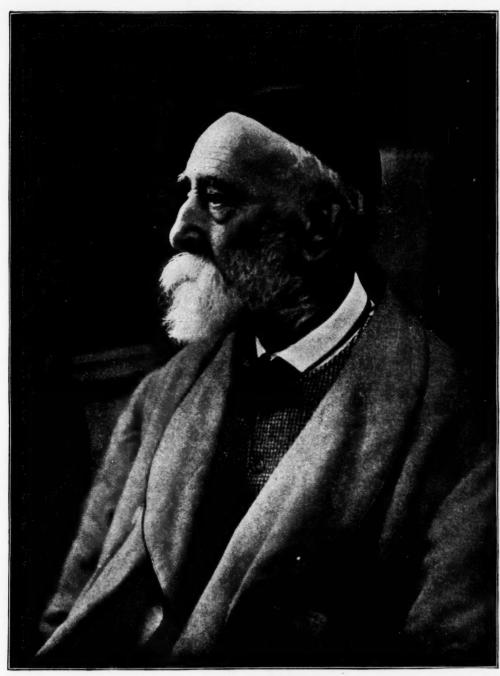
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MR. GEORGE FREDERICK WATTS, R.A. (From his latest photograph.)

used to take a little, but for a long time I have never touched any form of alcohol. At meals I never drink anything, not even water. Tea,—yes, in moderation. And so with regard to food I have been compelled to be very abstemious,—to eat moderately and of simple food, to go to bed early (9 o'clock, for the most part), to rise with the sun, to avoid violent exercise, and to enjoy plenty of fresh air."

HIS FAITH IN PROGRESS.

Mr. Watts' regimen has left him, for a person "naturally sickly," in possession of an extraordinary amount of vitality. For nearly two hours England's last remaining Grand Old Man stood on his feet discoursing with eloquence and fervor upon many subjects that are very dear to his heart.

"I am a firm believer in progress," said he; but in some respects we have not progressed, but retrogressed. Certain faculties which animals and savages possess are no longer at our command. Our senses are not so keen as they were, and some we have lost altogether. Take, for instance, the extraordinary homing faculty which belongs to most animals and a great many



LIMNERSLEASE: IN THE ENTRANCE HALL.

savages. Very few civilized men possess the faculty of finding their way home when they are lost in the midst of a great city. I remember a friend of mine who possessed that faculty in an extraordinary degree. We would occasionally walk together to the east of London, and sometimes entirely lose our bearings. I could never have found my way home, but my friend was never at a loss. No matter where he might be, he always struck out for home, and found his way back without any doubt.

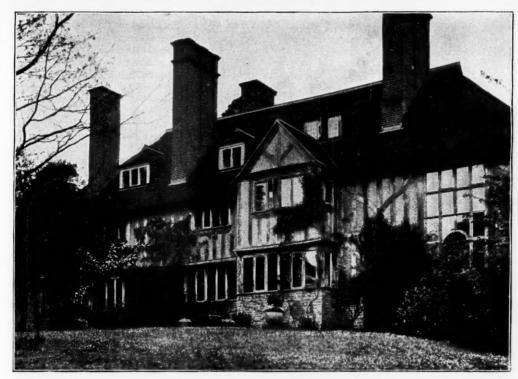
"Take another instance,—eyesight. I remember Sir William Bowman, the oculist, telling me of some educated Zulus whose eyesight was so keen that they could read the *Times* newspaper at the distance of one wall to the other of his consulting room! Whether we could regain those lost faculties or not I do not know. We are crowded together in cities, a healthy country life is impossible to an increasing proportion of our people, and our physique is decaying.

ARCHERY AND PHYSIQUE.

"When I was in Yorkshire, some years ago, the friends with whom I was staying showed me one of their cherished relics, a long-bow, which, according to tradition, had been the weapon of Little John of the Robin Hood ballads. A little bit was broken off one end, but it was otherwise intact. That bow was as thick as my wrist. Just imagine a modern man set to draw such a bow. He could not move it; it would be absolutely impossible. How was it possible in those days? It was because the whole population was trained to the use of the bow. It was practiced with pleasure by everybody. Ask one of our modern toxophilites to handle such a bow, and he would laugh at you. I don't suppose we could restore the practice of archery in our country; but if we could, it would do more than anything else to restore the physique of our people. As Bishop Latimer said in one of his sermons, he was taught by his yeoman father to throw the whole weight of his body into his bow hand. Evidently the aim was suddenly taken by the left hand; and in this way they of olden time launched the arrows which did such havoc at Crecy and Agincourt. You can easily conceive how it developed the chest, and strengthened the muscles of the arm, and perfected the The modern rifle is a miserable subphysique. stitute.

THE CASE FOR CONSCRIPTION.

"I am inclined to believe," said Mr. Watts, "that nothing would be better for the physique, and also for the morale of the population, than the adoption of some system of compulsory mili-



MR. WATTS' SURREY RESIDENCE, "LIMNERSLEASE."

tary service. If every young man were to be subjected to two years of salutary discipline in the camp, and more especially in the navy, he would learn to obey, and be passed through a rigorous physical training. In Germany, at least, I understand that there is only one opinion as to the physical and moral benefits of military training."

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I said my impression was that in France there were somewhat different opinions; that young men learned a good many things in the barracks that were anything but moral.

"I don't know," said he. "Probably they would have picked them up all the same if they had been scrambling round with nothing to do in their own villages.

IN PRAISE OF SAILORS.

"But I much prefer the training of a sailor to that of a soldier. It was my fortune to spend some time once upon a man of war. I was immediately impressed with the sailor's life. The sailor is trained first of all to observation, and observation is, after all, the root of education. Sailors are intelligent, resourceful men, full of vitality, genial, good-tempered men. I suppose we must always have soldiers and sailors, if only to keep our own shores safe from attack. But if I had my way, I would make it compulsory for every soldier to spend a certain portion of his time on board ship, and at the same time I should let the sailor have every opportunity of learning to ride and shoot.

BRITISH HORSEMANSHIP.

"We plume ourselves in England on being the best horsemen in the world, and I am not by any means sure that we are not the worst. To be a good horseman is much more than merely to be able to keep your seat in the Take, for instance, the question of the bit. You will constantly be told that you should always ride your horse with a snaffle and no curb, because then you don't hurt the horse if you pull him with the bridle. On the contrary, a sharp bit and a light hand, -indeed, anything but a light hand with a sharp bit, -will not do, as the rider would soon find. A good rider depends upon his grip, knees, and movements of his body for the security of his seat and indications of his will, never depending on reins or stirrup at all for firmness in the saddle. No groom is

ever taught this, and every horse's mouth is spoiled. I regard riding as one of the fine arts. I love a horse, but would abolish the Turf,—fruitful source of gambling, the one vice for which Nature offers no excuse!"

A PLEA FOR REAL EDUCATION.

Mr. Watts warmed to his subject as he spoke. "The education of the people," he continued,-"that is the great question. Why do you not concentrate attention upon that? To educate your people, to draw out of them that which is latent in them, to teach them the faculties which they themselves possess, to tell them how to use their senses and to make themselves at home with nature and with their surroundings,-who teaches them that? Your elementary schools don't do it. No: nor your public schools. Your Eton and your Harrow are just as much to blame, perhaps even more so. What is the first object which a real education should aim at? To develop observation in the person educated, to teach him to use his eves and his ears, to be keenly alive to all that surrounds him, to teach him to see, to observe, -in short, everything is in that. And then, after you have taught him to observe, the next great duty which lies immediately after observation is reflection,—to teach him to reflect, to ponder, to think over things. to find out the cause, the reason, the why and the wherefore; to put this and that together, to understand something of the world in which he lives, and so prepare him for all the circumstances of the life in which he may be found. But observation! Was there ever any method less calculated to develop the habit of observation than the practice of cramming up boys with the Latin and Greek grammar?

"Heaven forbid!" said Mr. Watts, "that I should say a word against the learning of Latin or Greek. I am all in favor of mastering the language of the classics, especially Greek; but the knowledge of the language is but as an instrument with which you can unlock the treasures of thought of these people. What do you do? You send your boys to school, and simply impress, as it were with a stamp, the rules of grammar, to them utterly meaningless, and till applied utterly without interest. The result is that in nine cases out of ten a boy never gets more than a smattering of the language, and forgets it as rapidly as he possibly can after leaving school.

THE DOMESTIC ARTS.

"It is typical of the how not-to-do-it way that is characteristic of all our education. It neither teaches a man to live, nor how to make the best of himself, nor how to make the most of his surroundings. Look in any direction you please. You turn out hundreds of thousands of young men and young women from your schools to mate and to make homes for themselves without teaching the girl how to bake or how to cook, and the boy the best way to lay a fire or boil a kettle. Everything hinges upon this,—they are not taught to observe; they are not taught to reflect; and education, instead of being the development of those faculties of the mind which enable them to use their senses, and to reflect on what they see, has given place to a mere mechanical stamping upon the memory of forms of words many of which have no relation to anything that they will have to see and do in their after-life.

THE EDUCATION OF A SAILOR.

"Contrast this with the education of a sailor. Oh, I wish," said Mr. Watts, "that you would endeavor to rouse public opinion on this subject, to point out the abominable waste that goes on of human faculties, the amount of misery that comes into the world from the fact that our young people are turned loose without any training that is calculated to make them happy and comfortable. The smaller their means, the more need there is for them to be able to make the most of them. But we have had an opportunity recently of seeing what can be done by giving something of the education of the sailor to our village lads. A boy in this neighborhood who was left without proper guardianship was sent to school for a little time, and then afterward sent to a training ship. He came back recently on a visit to the old village, and his people were surprised by the change that had been wrought in him. It was a transformation; the lad was respectful, alert, quick in movement, nice in his manners, and his faculties had been thoroughly trained. Now what an object lesson is that! Here is a great task that might surely be commended to the attention of those excellent ladies who are to be found all over the land who are anxious to do good, but who do not know exactly how to set about it.

THE WASTE OF CHILD-LIFE.

"Why should they not endeavor to check the waste of child-life that is going on, and to recognize in practical fashion the guardianship which the nation owes to these its wards? Have you ever thought how many children there are growing up in our midst who have either no parents, or worse than none,—children of tramps, the offspring of criminals, or orphans, disinherited even of parentage,—who are growing up, if not exactly nobody's children, nevertheless without adequate parentage? Why should we not recog-

nize the redemption of these children as one of those sacred tasks which in every age have appealed to the chivalrous sentiment of people? I would not call them Children of the State. No: they are the Children of the Nation, and the nation should set itself to the task of their redemption. Here and there philanthropists, no doubt, have done excellent work : but still, after all that has been done, how many thousands of children at this moment are growing up unnurtured, untended, uneducated in the worst sense of the word, to swell the tide of human misery! It is a marvel to me. It only shows how good we were originally, that human creatures who have such an origin should not grow up positive fiends.

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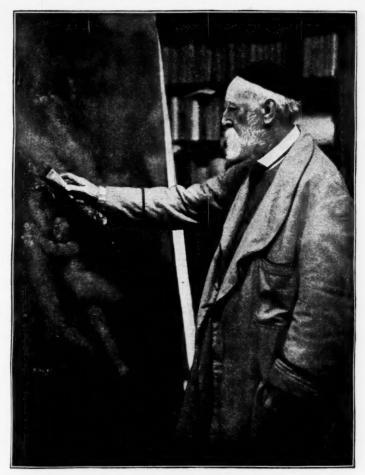
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THE MOST URGENT REFORM.

"There is, in fact, some goodness in human nature that seems ineradicable by circumstances. Even among the Hooligans and roughs of the slums you will find immense capacities for self-sacrifice, which are occasionally revealed when fires or accidents make a sudden appeal to the heroism of humble life. Why should we allow such rough dia-

monds to escape without giving them adequate setting? It seems to me that we should stud the coasts of our country with training ships in which we should give the best education in the world to these Children of the Nation who are growing up to be the scourge and despair of civilization. This is the most urgent reform, -the utilization of the waste of humanity. I remember my old friend Lord Aberdare telling me once of a stream in Wales which was polluted by the waste product of some factory that had been established higher up the hills. It was a beautiful stream before the poisonous chemical refuse was flung into the upper water, but after that it was poisoned. All remonstrances were in vain. The owners of the factory relied upon legal right, and went on polluting the stream,



THE PAINTER AT WORK.

(Mr. Watts uses neither palette nor maul-stick.)

until at last the dwellers down stream took counsel with some chemists. They intercepted the waste product of the factory, and found that it was possible, by chemical treatment, to convert it into a source of great revenue. So it is with us. This stream of neglected boyhood flows into the channel of our national life at present,—neglected, waste, and poisonous material. But training ships would be as the crucible of the chemist, converting what had been a source of danger into a source of health, strength, and wealth to the community."

I ventured at this point to state the familiar objections to institutions for training children, and said I thought a very third-rate mother was better than the best head of a barracks. Mr. Watts said he did not argue in favor of huge institu-

tions. His idea was training ships. When painting his memorial to the heroes in humble life he had been more and more impressed by the way in which the primal instincts of manly heroism burst out and flowered under most rough and rugged surroundings.

THE LAW OF COMBAT THE LAW OF LIFE.

"How is it," I asked, "that human society always seems to go rotten at the top?"

"It is a natural law," said the painter; "for the struggle for existence cannot be suspended without loss. The law of combat is the law of life. When a man is comfortable, and has all that he wants, his fibers become relaxed. He is no longer pressed by the daily and hourly contest which is the condition of a strenuous life. Hence all races tend to decay when they achieve comfort. And that law of combat," said he, suddenly giving the conversation a personal turn, "is what you ignore in your opposition to war. War is but the ultimate form,—gross, rude, horribly painful, no doubt, but the culminating

point of the rock of combat which is the condition of progress."

I ventured to protest against that theory.

"Logically," said I, "your principle, which I accept in certain aspects, would, if applied as you apply it, lead you to advocate the restoration of the Heptarchy or of the condition of internecine feud which prevailed in the Middle Ages. It seems to me that war between nations is simply a hideous waste of forces, which, if compelled to confine their combat within less barbarous bounds, would produce greater results for the good of the race."

THE PARABLE OF THE MUSCLES.

Mr. Watts shook his head.

"You may be right, but the time for achieving that ideal is not yet come. You must learn to tolerate the universal law which governs the progress of mankind. It does not follow that when you go to war with people you hate them. I think that our soldiers in South Africa have demonstrated that. They have done their best to



THE POTTERY AT LIMNERSLEASE.



INSIDE THE POTTERY.

defeat the Boers who invaded our territory. Having defeated them, they harbor no ill will, but regard them with humane feelings. No, no," said he, clinching his fist and stretching out his right arm, "combat does not involve malice. Difference of function does not imply even antagonism. Look at my arm. With the extensor I thrust out my arm; with the flexor on the other side I draw it back. The two muscles have absolutely opposite functions, but you need both of them in order to use your arm. So it is in life. There is an apparent opposition, a duality of function necessary to build up a true unity. Hence intolerance of opposition is one of the worst sins against progress."

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CREEDS AS PICTURES.

"Creeds," said he, "are all very well in their way; but, after all, they are but pictures of the Infinite as seen by the human mind. Take an illustration. I have seen some picture of some natural object, and I wish to make you understand what it is. Far simpler than to describe it in words is to make a picture, -draw a sketch, and let you look at it. It is the same with creeds. The Church makes creeds as I make a picture. For the ordinary man, who has had no vision himself, it suffices. If you can see the object yourself, you recognize that my sketch is only a picture, and not the real thing. The tendency is always to substitute the sketched object for the reality. Look at this hand," said he. "What wonderful things we can do with the human hand."

I looked at it closely, and wished that I could read the secret of the innumerable lines which crossed and recrossed, not only the palm, but every phalange; the hand of the artist and thinker,—a hand every inch of the surface of which was scored deep with eloquent lines.

Mr. Watts was not thinking, however, of palmistry. He was bent upon giving me one of those homely illustrations with which his conversation abounds.

THE PARABLE OF THE FINGERS

"Here," said he, seizing the forefinger of his right hand in the finger and thumb of his left, "do you see that?

That stands for faith, that for hope, and so on," he continued. "These four fingers represent the ministration of man. They stand for Religion. Now look at the thumb. The thumb stands for Reason. Cut off a man's thumb, and what can he do? Nothing, except perhaps hang on to a bar with his fingers. Take away the fingers, and what can he do with his thumb? And so it is in life. The human race loses the use of its hand when religion is divorced from reason or reason from religion. As you must have your fingers and your thumb in order to grasp anything, so man needs both reason and religion in order to conduct his life. But stay," said he; "I have had typed out for you two quotations which seem to me to express the highest thought uttered by man upon the subject of religion. There is nothing higher or simpler or more noble."

TWO GOLDEN SENTENCES.

With that he left the room, and presently returned with a sheet of paper on which were type-written two sentences. "The first," he said, "contains the closing words of the speech of Abraham Lincoln":

With malice toward none, with charity for all, with firmness in the right as God gives us to see the right, let us strive on to finish the work we are in, to bind up the nation's wounds, to care for him who shall have borne the battle, and for his widow and his children, to do all which may achieve and cherish a just and lasting peace among ourselves and with all nations.

"Oh, he was a great man, Abraham Lincoln,

one of the greatest of men. I suppose," said Mr. Watts, "Napoleon, if he had been a good man, would have been the greatest man that ever lived; but he was not a good man, and so he fell short. But for intellect and energy and genius he was the greatest of all. Ah, if he had but been capable of uttering such words as those of Abraham Lincoln, then he would have towered aloft. But read my other text, which is shorter":

What doth the Lord require of thee, but to do justly, love mercy, and walk humbly before Him.

"An utterance of an old Hebrew which should appeal to every Christian. The essence of it all is there."

THE UTMOST FOR THE HIGHEST.

"Yes, indeed," I said, "and the essence of all religion is the same. What is wanted is to create some center where the best thought of the best men, all the best that has been done and thought in the world, should be rendered accessible to every one, and that from that center should go forth the energizing force, reviving civic religion and summoning and directing us all in the service of mankind."

"Ah, yes," said he, "if you could make such a church, then indeed we would all belong to it. You know my motto," he continued, pointing as

THE DOOR OF THE MORTUARY CHAPEL.

he spoke to a sundial which bore eloquent testimony to the skill of the potter-artists who worked under the direction of Mrs. Watts. I read the inscription.

""The utmost for the highest.' That has ever been my watchword. Do you not think it is a

good one?"

"Yes, indeed," I replied. "But it is easier for us to know when we have done our utmost than to be sure about the highest."

The painter did not speak, but, walking a little way, he picked up a daisy from the lawn

and gave it me.

"It is my flower," said he; "a humble thing, but it ever looks upward."

MR. RHODES.

"Ah," said Mr. Watts, "Mr. Rhodes was a great personality, one of the few of the great ones who were left to us. Bismarck, I suppose, was a great man; but here among us I do not see any other personality so great as Rhodes. You know, he came," said Mr. Watts, "at six o'clock in the morning, and stood here for his portrait for two or three hours. I never finished it. Some day I hope I shall do so. He was a great man, and yet," said he, "I do not know that I care very much for the idea of Imperialism."

THE STATUE OF TENNYSON.

One of these good men to whom England gave birth in the nineteenth century is engaged in modeling plaster. Mr. Watts took me to the outbuilding in which he was modeling a colossal figure of Tennyson. It represented the poet wearing his familiar cloak. The head, though not then placed upon the shoulders of the gigantic figure, began to bear a striking likeness to the dead poet.

Speaking of ideal figures, Mr. Watts mentioned incidentally, when we were talking in the studio, that in painting his ideal pictures he never employed the services of any model. By this means he avoided the danger of introducing the copy of an actual physical creature into a picture which was designed solely to represent an idea. If he found himself at a loss for any particular anatomical detail, he would model the figure in clay, and use that as a guide to his brush. Of late Mr. Watts has been painting trees. His pictures, of panel shape, were painted from trees which can be seen from the windows of Limnerslease. There was a large unfinished picture in his studio representing Repentant Eve. Eve, mother of all mankind, stands with her back to the spectator, treading under foot a white lily, while a long glorious



THE MORTUARY CHAPEL AND GRAVEYARD.

wealth of flaxen hair streams from her head, which is slightly bowed in grief.

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"It is a study," said Mr. Watts, "of penitent woman, which is probably the highest form of womanhood; and yet they are often penitent, poor things," he said, "when they have little reason for remorse. They suffer much at the hands of others."

THE GENEROSITY OF GENIUS.

Mr. Watts has been singularly reckless and prodigal with the gifts of his genius. Now and then he sells a picture merely to supply the wants of every day; but most of his work he has done without other fee or reward than the consciousness of artistic creation and the joy of his art. From the time he was sixteen,—that is to say, for three score years and ten,—Mr. Watts has maintained himself by his brush. He might have been a very wealthy man, but he is one of the children of light whom the skill of the children of the world in amassing worldly gear repels rather than attracts. In the course of an artistic career extending over the life of two generations, Mr. Watts has been brought in contact with men in all sorts of positions, from the

King on the throne to the Hooligan in the street. I asked him whether he had ever kept a journal. He said, no; he did not care for personal gossip.

THE PARADISE OF LIMNERSLEASE.

After lunch, while Mr. Watts rested, Mrs. Watts took me round the little domain, which was beginning to glow with the early glory of spring. It was difficult to realize that all this wealth of shrubbery and wood was the growth of only eleven years. Everywhere the touch of the master and the grace of the mistress had together made Limnerslease itself a beautiful picture, the idvllic peace of which imprinted itself upon all its denizens. Mr. Rhodes was deeply impressed with the sweet serenity and calm of the artist's retreat. The servant who opened the door, the man who drove him to the station, seemed to share in the restful ease which soothed and tranquillized the eager Colossus. "And do you know," said he, in his odd way, "I believe if I had gone down to the kitchen, I am sure I should have found the same sweet serenity on the face of the cook."

A little way to the south of the house, in the valley, lies the art pottery works originally es-

tablished as a kind of recreation school for the use of the village, and now carried on as a serious business under the personal supervision of Mrs. Watts. It is a very interesting experiment, and one which, I am very glad to know, is succeeding well. Mrs. Watts, like her husband, is a great believer in the latent artistic capacity of the English child.

"Train him early, let him taste the joy of creative work, and you can achieve much greater things with him than we have yet ventured to

hope."

The pottery naturally suggested itself as one of the most obvious and simple means by which to teach children to make things. Near Limnerslease lies a long deep narrow stratum of clay, the product of the attrition of granite boulders in ages long gone by, which have left behind them this clay as part of the inheritance of the human race. From this stratum the clay is brought out, disintegrated by winter's frost, then caked together, and passed through a mill whose revolving knives chop it up. It is then taken to a well, where it is mixed with water, and in the consistency of a muddy liquid it passes through a fine sieve into the vats, where it remains until sufficient moisture is removed to render it available for the potter's wheel. The one great staple

of the pottery manufacture is the great globular vase which is usually brought from Italy, but which can now be supplied from the Compton pottery. Another important department of the output consists in the manufacture of window-boxes in what appears to be terra cotta, with beautifully modeled bas-reliefs and fronts. These are supplied at 10s. and 12s. 6d. each. The cost of the vase is 20s.

THE WORK OF THE VILLAGE ARTISTS.

They also produce sundials in clay at various prices, everything being done with the hand, and nothing by machine or by mould. Endless varieties of pattern can be obtained. All the productions are stamped with a special seal. I saw some of these, on the bases of which the heraldic bearings of the purchaser had been carefully modeled, and then affixed to the side of the globe. All manner of charming, quaint, and symbolic work can be seen at the pottery; but to see what can be done when good clay is moulded by nimble fingers under the direction of an artistic brain, a visit should be paid to the mortuary chapel in the little gravevard, close to Limnerslease. It is all the work of the Compton people, and the ironwork at the door was done by the village blacksmith

A LIST OF SOME OF MR. WATTS' MOST IMPORTANT WORKS.

"The Wounded Heroes" and two portraits of women, first exhibited at the Royal Academy in 1837; "Isabella Finding Lorenzo Dead," from Boccaccio (1840); "Caractacus Led in Triumph Through the Streets of Rome" (1842); "Alfred Inciting the Saxons to Prevent the Landing of the Danes by Meeting Them at Sea"a cartoon (1847), for which he won a prize of £500, purchased with his "Echo" by the Commissioner, and now at Westminster; "Justice," or "School of Legislation" (1859), a fresco, in dining hall of Lincolns Inn; "Orlando Pursuing the Fata Morgana" (1848); "The Good Samaritan" (1850), painted in honor of Thomas Wright, of Manchester, and presented to the Town Hall of Manchester by the artist: "Life's Illusions" (1849); "St. George and the Dragon," a fresco, in the upper waiting room at Westminster, begun in 1848, and completed in 1853; "The Window-Seat," "Sir Galahad" (1862), "Virginia" and "Ariadne" (1863), "Esau" (1865), "Love and Death" (1877), presented by the artist to Whitworth Institute at Manchester; "Paolo and Francesca" and "Orpheus and Eurydice" (1879), both in possession of the artist; "Psyche" (1880), "Rider on the Pale Horse" and "Rider on the White Horse" (1881), "Rider on the Black Horse" and "Rider on the Red Horse" (1883), "Love and Life" (1884), "Death of Cain," "The Soul's Prism" and "Hope" (1886), in possession of William R. Moss; "Love Steering the Boat of Humanity," exhibited this year at the New Gallery.

Among his sculptured works are "Clytie," "Statue of Hugh Lupus," "The Huntsman" (at the Duke of

Westminster's country seat, near Chester), "Physical Energy," and the recumbent figure of Bishop Lonsdale in Litchfield Cathedral.

He has painted portraits of Guizot (1848), Tennyson (1859), also one early unfinished study and a painting finished from the study in May, 1890, another in possession of the Dowager Lady Bowman, another in red robes at Trinity College, Cambridge, and another in a peer's robes in possession of the artist; Browning, Swinburne (1865), William Morris, Carlyle, J. Stuart Mill (1874), Matthew Arnold, Dean Stanley, W. E. Lecky, Gladstone (1865), the Duke of Argyll, Leslie Stephen, Holman Hunt, Burne-Jones, Millais, Leighton, Lord Lyndhurst, presented to the National Gallery by the artist, with portraits of Lord John Russell and Lord Lyons; John Lothrop Motley (1882), Cardinal Manning (1882), Lord Lytton (1882), Sir Alexander Cockburn, Viscount Sherbrooke, Mrs. Frederick Meyers, Marquis of Salisbury (1884), Earl Lytton (1884), Rt. Hon. Gerald Balfour (1899), Livingstone, Joachim (1867), Dr. Martineau, Calderon, Max Müller, Lady Mount-Temple, Walter Crane (1893), Sir Andrew Clark, the Hon. Mrs. Percy Wyndham, Major-General Baden-Powell, exhibited at this year's Academy, and several portraits of himself, one in possession of the Dowager Lady Bowman, and one in the Uffizzi at Florence. Mr. Watts has painted five generations of the Ionides family. Many of the portraits first in the list were seen at the Metropolitan Museum of Art in the winter of 1884-85. A number of these portraits will go to the nation.

INDUSTRIAL AND COMMERCIAL CONDITIONS IN CUBA.

BY ALBERT G. ROBINSON.

CUBA'S present is dark with the gloom of in-dustrial disaster and commercial stagnation. Her future is bright with the promise of peace and abundant prosperity. Given a land of immeasurable fertility, readily accessible to the markets of the great world outside it,-a land receiving in due measure the kiss of the sun and the benediction of the rain, -and, if that land be not unduly and artificially barred from the world's markets, prosperity is inevitable. That is Cuba's future. The days which lie immediately before her are filled with an uncertainty which renders prediction concerning them little else than folly. But, sooner or later, the clouds and the doubts which overshadow the Cuba of to-day will pass, and the island will take its place in the world as a land of peace and plenty.

SPANISH TRADE RESTRICTIONS.

Cuba's present distress is but the crisis of an economic disease of many years' standing. original provoking cause was the unjust and unwise colonial policy adopted and maintained by the mother country. It began as far back as the year 1503, when a royal ordinance established the Casa de la Contratacion, or House of Commerce, at Seville. This body was empowered to grant licenses, to dispatch fleets, and to regulate and control Spanish colonial trade as an exclusive monopoly. În 1717, the institution was transferred to the port of Cadiz. The colonial trade was thus restricted to a single Spanish port. Further restrictions prohibited both intercolonial trade and trade with any country other than Spain. For a period during the seventeenth century such trade was made an offence punishable by the death of the trader and the confiscation of the property involved. In the first fifty years of Cuba's history, Santiago was the only port of the island through which merchandise could be either imported or exported without violation of the law. With the establishment of Havana as the capital, in 1552, that city became the only port officially recognized. With the exception of the brief term of British occupation, 1762-63, this condition obtained until the close of the eighteenth century. A royal order, issued in 1801, opened the other ports of the island to foreign trade. This was annulled

by another order in 1809. A few years later a new policy was adopted. The ports were opened, but the same results were accomplished by a system of discriminating tariffs which gave Spain a practical monopoly of Cuban trade. continued, subject to sundry minor modifications, until the execution, in 1891, of the reciprocity treaty with the United States. With the termination of that treaty, in 1894, there came a reversion to the old system of discriminating, preferential, and special tariffs in favor of Spain

and against all other countries.

This restriction of the fullest development of the resources of the island was one of the prominent fundamental causes of all the numerous revolts, large and small, which have occurred in Cuba since her first really notable revolt, in 1823. The Ten Years' War (1868-78) made no serious inroads upon Cuba's production. The abolition of slavery, finally effected in 1886, made a material difference in the cost price of her products. This was one of the direct results of the Ten Years' War. Coincident with the war and this enhanced cost of sugar production, there came the vigorous competition of Europe's bountied beet sugar, which forced the f. o. b. prices of Cuba's raw sugar down from 5 to 54 cents per pound, which it obtained from 1870-80, to $2\frac{1}{2}$ to 3 cents per pound twenty years later. To meet this competition, Cuban planters borrowed heavily for the construction of grinding mills equipped with modern machinery. In spite of the benefits of the years of reciprocity between Spain and the United States (1891-94), the outbreak of the revolution of 1895 found many Cuban planters burdened with overwhelming mortgages, and facing a further downward tendency in sugar prices. The three years of devastating war destroyed scores of mills and plantations, but it did not destroy the mortgages and the financial obligations of the planters.

ECONOMIC CONDITIONS AFTER THE SPANISH-AMERICAN WAR.

American intervention, in 1898, terminated a war which left Cuba an industrial wreck, with her finances in a state of chaos. Unfortunately for Cuba, and for the United States as well, her real condition was neither realized nor under-

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stood by those who essayed her political redemption. There was a distinct failure in the diagnosis. Of those who were sent to administer the affairs of the island, only one man, Gen. James H. Wilson, correctly diagnosed the disease, and prescribed, in general terms, the proper remedy. In the report submitted by that officer, under date of June 20, 1899, there occurs the following:

I am so convinced of the futility of approaching the problem of reconstruction from any other direction that I must again urge the necessity of some action to relieve the wants of the agricultural population, and to put agriculture on a sound basis with the least possible delay.

In his report, dated December 31, 1900, Señor Perfecto Lacoste, the Cuban Secretary of Agriculture, Commerce, and Industry, states:

No order of general nature has been issued during the period to which this report refers, nor during the six preceding months, which comprise those of the occupation of the island by the intervening government, relating to our agriculture.

In a later report, dated March 15, 1901, Señor Lacoste makes the same statement for a second time, and it might with equal accuracy have been included in a report dated May 19, 1902. Cuba's present economic distress is no surprise to those who have watched the Cuban situation during the term of American intervention. For two years the Cuban press has sounded a warning; for two years bankers and merchants throughout the island have noted the coming storm. Those in whose hands lay the power of relief, and upon whom there rested the responsibility for relief, were blind to the danger signals and deaf to both protest and warning. As nearly all of these were printed in the Spanish language, they did not come to the general American reading public, and such translations as were submitted were brushed aside as the querulous complaints of the disgruntled or the pessimistic. For their bearing upon the subject, I quote the following translations from editorials which appeared during the winter of 1900-01:

Over a year ago it was clearly seen and predicted by those who took the trouble of looking into the matter, that unless some general measures were taken to assist the agricultural interests and other industries of the island, its productive capacities would be so crippled that the economic and commercial life of the country would dwindle to almost nothing. That is now taking place, and at so rapid a rate that, if immediate remedy is not applied to the evil, it will soon reach appalling proportions, and misery and destitution will become a sad reality.—(El Avisador Comercial, Havana.)

What has the intervention done during the two years which have passed? Nothing has been done for our permanent interests; nothing to encourage our production; nothing for our extinct credit; nothing to revive our paralyzed industries; in one word, nothing by

which we could be assured of life, or which would give us confidence that the result of our energies would be the provision for our necessities.—(El Nuevo Pais, Havana.)

It was to be presumed that the intervening power, on taking charge, would attend more to giving an impulse to our agriculture and our few industries than to the production of that Niagara of unnecessary ordinances with which it has augmented the existing laws of our country. But it appears that the necessities of politics—which ought to be laid aside when it is a question of economical existence—overshadowed all other considerations.—(La Independencia, Santiago.)

I take these from such clippings as lie immediately at hand. They are sufficiently representative of a large amount of similar matter which has appeared within the last two years. Any thoughtful investigation of the past three years in Cuba will disclose ample evidence to show that America's responsibility for Cuba's present industrial distress antedates, by several years, the failure of Congress to agree upon a plan for a reciprocity treaty with the island. Cuba's normal position as a commercial country, in time of peace, is that of a creditor nation to the extent of \$30,000,000 to \$40,000,000 a year. After three and a half years of American government, her merchants are indebted to foreign creditors to the amount of nearly \$50,000,000, and are relying upon those creditors to see them through an almost inevitable period of utter stagnation in commercial lines.

OUR RESPONSIBILITY FOR CUBA'S ECONOMIC WELFARE.

This is not a pleasant picture, but it is, unfortunately, only too accurate. The fundamental purpose of the United States in her intervention in Cuban affairs was not the establishment of Cuban independence. It was the establishment in the island of conditions which would put an end to disturbances which were a "menace to American interests" and "intolerable" to the American people. A peaceful Cuba might be an independent nation or a colonial possession of any country. Our primary object was the establishment of that peace and order and governmental stability which rest upon the contentment of a reasonably prosperous people. Cuba's longstanding disorder was rooted in oppressive economic conditions. Spain failed to remedy the evil which existed in her colony. She was in large measure directly responsible for its existence. The United States interfered, and, blindly or otherwise, sought to remedy an economic evil by the application of political plasters. It is the testimony of competent observers, -Cuban, Spanish, American, and European,—that Cuba is today worse off, economically, than she was at any

time under Spanish domination. The proper remedy and the power to apply it have been in American hands for more than three years. Cuba's streets may be the cleanest in the world. and there might be a schoolhouse to every one of her 28,000,000 of fertile acres: but if her industries are wrecked,-her planters, the source of her wealth, bankrupt; and her laboring class without employment and destitute, -clean streets and schoolhouses will be an inadequate substitute for national prosperity. No parallel lies between the Cuba of to day and our own South in 1865. Northern capital went into the South to develop its resources, and the South had free access to the market for her products, -her cotton, her tobacco, her rice, and all the rest of her boundless resources. Give Cuba that market, even now, and her government is assured, and her people will knock at no man's door for alms or aid.

It is a frequent comment that the future of Cuba depends absolutely upon her commercial relations with the United States. That is true, as a broad proposition. Cuba's highest and most rapid development hangs chiefly upon the utilization of her resources by American capital, and upon an open doorway to the markets of her northern neighbor. Cuba is distinctly an agricultural country, dependent for her wealth upon the products of her soil. There is little or no probability that her manufactures will ever be more than a comparatively insignificant item in her economy. Her trade and her commerce are almost entirely in the hands of the Spaniards. The Cuban does not take to trade. He is a man of the soil; or, if he be not a planter, he takes to some profession,-law, medicine, engineering, or politics. It is entirely safe to say that, to-day, no more than a small percentage of the total wealth of the island is represented by the possessions of those who are distinctly Cubans. Taking the figures given in Sanger's Census of 1899, it appears that the total real-estate valuation of the island is, in round figures, \$325,000,000. This is mortgaged to the amount of about \$250,-000,000.

NEED OF AMERICAN CAPITAL.

An unfortunate mistake has been made in the presentation of the Cuban case during the past winter. She has been put, and to some extent has put herself, into the attitude of a petitioner if not a beggar. The truth is, that Cuba can offer an ample quid pro quo for any concessions which might be made in our tariff. Out of her long list of customers, the United States can show only five foreign nations whose annual purchases exceed \$75,000,000. A reasonably pros-

perous Cuba can offer us a trade which would give her the fourth if not the third place on our list, while a highly developed Cuba might well become a purchaser of some \$200,000,000 worth of food and manufactured products per year. This highly developed Cuba is a ready possibility. But it is quite within bounds to say that the development must and will come through the investment of American capital. Spanish capital is not inclined to industrial exploitation. More or less of it is available for loans and for investment in fairly stable enterprises after they are established, but it is rarely available for the initiation of such enterprises. The Cubans have no money for either investment or development. Few of them now have enough for even the proper up-keep of their mills and plantations. Some European capital is already in Cuba, notably the English investment in Cuban railways and cigar factories. But it is to American capital that Cuba will look for its widest development.

PRESENT AMERICAN INVESTMENTS.

In 1894, the year preceding that of the insurrection, it was estimated that some \$50,000,-000 of American money were invested in various properties and enterprises in the island of Cuba, During the war period there was little or no increase of that amount. The estimates for the present time are in the vicinity of \$80,000,000. It is impossible, under existing conditions, to obtain exact figures, but this sum may be accepted as a fair approximation of American investments in Cuba at the present time. A part of this sum is represented by the holdings of non-resident investors; a part by the property of native-born Cubans who have become American citizens by naturalization, though their property and their homes are in the island; and a part shows as the possessions, generally small in amount, of Americans who have gone to Cuba for permanent residence and business.

For various reasons, chiefly because of political uncertainty and the unavoidable conditions of a period of transition, American investment in the island, during the last three years, has come short of the optimistic predictions which found circulation during the opening days of the American occupation. Notwithstanding the unfortunate conditions of to-day, there has been a notable rehabilitation of the industries of the island. Credit for this is due, almost entirely, to the efforts of the Cubans themselves. Although woefully destitute of resources, they have struggled manfully to pick up the threads of the old life, to establish homes where there were but ruins, and, by a most commendable method of mutual helpfulness, to provide for themselves

and for those dependent upon them. To those of us who saw the devastation and the destitution of three and four years ago, this is one of the most impressive and hopeful features in the life of the island.

Among the outside influences which are now contributory toward the reconstruction of the island, the most important and the most valuable is found in the department of railroad communication.

RAILROADS.

The first railroad in Cuba was built more than fifty years ago. The system developed gradually until, at the outbreak of the war, it represented about 1,100 miles of road, much the greater part of which was in the western portion of the island, with a center in Havana. About twothirds of the island was practically without railway facilities. The war left the railways in bad condition, and many of the Cuban and Spanish stockholders were ready to part with their hold-American investors looked the properties over, but decided that the prices asked were entirely unreasonable, and declined to purchase. An English company already owned the line from Havana to Pinar del Rio. Another English company bought up the system known as the United Railways, which covers, generally, the ground for a hundred miles or so to the eastward of Havana; and another English organization secured the Cuba Central Railway, which occupies a portion of the field eastward of the United Railways. These companies have done something in the way of improvement and reconstruction, but nothing in the way of extension.

The leading railroad feature of the island is the work being done by the organization of which Sir William van Horne is the directing head. The company holds a New Jersey charter, and its purpose is a colossal development enterprise in which its railway line is but an incident, although, necessarily, the whole scheme rests upon means of transportation. Up to the present time nearly, if not quite, \$10,000,000 has been actually expended. For some months a force of 5,000 to 6,000 men has been busily at work clearing a way through forest and jungle, grading, bridging, ditching, and laying tracks and rails over a stretch of about 450 miles through the heart of the provinces of Santa Clara, Puerto Principe, and Santiago. Unless the work be blocked by the rainy season, August 1 should see a rail connection from Pinar del Rio, 100 miles west of Havana, to Santiago de Cuba, more than 500 miles east.

A unique difficulty was encountered at the beginning of this enterprise. The so-called Foraker Law of the American Congress prohibited

the granting of any concessions or franchises to individuals or corporations during the period of American occupation. In the face of this, Sir William van Horne and his associates began their work upon an enterprise which, before it is definitely concluded, may, in the words of Sir William, involve "twenty millions, thirty, fifty, or a hundred millions of dollars." It has been asserted that the work was, in fact, a violation or, at best, an evasion of the Foraker Law. That is not the case. It has complied with the law. That law prohibited concessions and franchises. The Cuba Company, as it is called, neither has nor has asked for either. It has bought lands throughout its intended route and has laid down rails and ties upon the lands thus bought. It has purchased a continuous strip of land some 450 miles in length and 30 meters in width. It obtained a revocable license to cross streams and highways, and thereby placed itself at the mercy of any government which might be established. It encountered obstacles in the shape of individual owners who refused to sell except at exorbitant figures. It encountered areas to which no owners at all could be found, and other areas of doubtful and complicated title. Upon its surface, it was a gigantic speculation whose outcome was exceedingly doubtful. Yet it went ahead, spending its millions along the way.

The laws, as they existed, gave the company no rights of expropriation. Those laws gave the right to construct railways upon private lands, and many miles of such railways were in operation upon the sugar estates, but they gave no right to operate them for public uses. roads could carry no passengers and no freight except their own. The company bought an existing line, of some twenty miles in length, running from Santiago northward to San Luis, and leased the military line which Spain built in connection with its line of blockhouses, trenches, and barbed-wire fencing, from Jucaro to Moron, in the hope of confining the insurrection to the area of its inception in the eastern part of the island. To the outsider, the whole scheme presented every sign of an extremely precarious undertaking. Newspapers attacked it, and various local politicians frankly declared their purpose to make the company open its check book whenever it should come into their power to regulate the laws of the island. But the company proceeded with its work, placating here and receiving support there, gradually and surely diminishing its opposition throughout the entire area of its operations. Its processes of construction put large sums of ready money into circulation in a region where it was greatly needed. While in that section a few weeks ago, a number of the leading

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people told me that without the money which had followed the work of the Cuba Company, it was by no means improbable that the people of the region would have been starved into a condition of revolt.

On February 7, 1902, there was issued from the headquarters of the military government an order known as No. 34. This is unquestionably one of the ablest railroad laws which was ever drafted. It is concise, yet comprehensive. It protects both public and private interests, is broad in conception and extensive in scope. An objection undoubtedly lies in the fact of the creation of so important a law by the American authorities at a time so little preceding the day when the Cubans were to undertake the control of their own affairs. But its justification lies in the merits of the law itself, and in the fact that it makes possible the rapid prosecution of an enterprise whose development constitutes, beyond all question, the key to the future of the island of Cuba. The railway and development scheme of the Cuba Company, in which English and Canadian capital is associated with American capital, will open to settlement and productive cultivation an area, hitherto little more than a vast wilderness, of twelve to fifteen millions of acres of the richest land in one of the richest spots on the surface of the globe.

SUGAR PROPERTIES.

A somewhat general circulation has been given, within the last few weeks, to allegations that certain interested persons are seeking to force the economic destruction of Cuba in order that they may purchase sugar properties in the island at prices far below the actual value of those properties. While it is only too evident that there is an effort on foot to effect annexation by any and all means, creditable to the United States or otherwise, I cannot accept that interpretation of the underlying motive. Such purchases would involve large investment of capital. Those who contemplate such investment are fully aware of the fact that only a limited number of the already established estates would be in any way a desirable purchase, in view of the much greater advantages offered to the investor in virgin lands for plantations and the erection upon them of up-to-date grinding mills. Any number of the old estates can now be purchased at almost any price, and there have been few transactions. Nor is there any probability that, under any circumstances, the virgin lands could be bought at any lower prices than those which are now quoted. With the exception of a small number of estates, which the present owners can afford to hold and operate, the opportunity for

profitable investment lies distinctly upon the side of the virgin land with the modern mill. Before many years, these will almost inevitably crush out a large number of the old estates. The new lands are available to-day at prices which offer no probability whatever of reduction, and there appears no competent reason for forcing general disaster in order to purchase undesirable or less desirable properties.

The total of American investment in Cuban sugar production is to-day probably not far from \$40,000,000, - about equally divided between Cubans who have taken out naturalization papers and those who are citizens of the United States by natural right. Of the amount held by the latter class, about two-thirds is of a standing which antedates the insurrection of 1895. This is represented by such estates as the Constancia and the Soledad, both near Cienfuegos. These have been owned by native-born Americans for the last twenty or thirty years; \$7,000,000 to \$8,000,000 will probably fairly cover all American investment in Cuban sugar properties since the Spanish evacuation. There is no doubt that many other millions are ready and waiting to move in if the movement be justified by political conditions and a fair market, particularly the

The sugar industry is a business for large investors. Renters or owners of comparatively small properties, located in the vicinity of the large "centrals," or grinding mills, find the production of cane a reasonably profitable enterprise under normal market conditions as a cash crop. Many of the mills depend largely upon this source of supply. This is indicated by the fact that during the last season the number of mills in operation was about 160, while the number of cane-growers, large and small, is estimated at from 18,000 to 20,000.

MINING ENTERPRISES.

Although many metals and minerals are included among the potential interests of Cuba, few mines of any importance have been developed thus far. As far back as the early days of Spanish settlement, the copper mines near Santiago, across the bay to the westward, were a source of supply, and they have been, in later years, a highly profitable investment. The war of 1868-78 stopped their operation for a time, and no extensive work has been carried on since that date. The numerous properties have now been bought up by American capital, represented by Messrs. Rand and Chanler, and they will soon be reopened. Some \$600,000 has already been expended, and it is probable that half a million dollars or so more will be laid out before the mines are put upon a paying basis. There is no question of the value of the properties, and there is every probability that the enterprising gentlemen who are reopening the Cobre mines will find ample returns for their outlay.

The iron and manganese mines to the eastward and northward of Santiago have, since the cessation of hostilities, repaired their damaged properties, and are again in operation. The Spanish-American Iron Company, at Daiquiri, represents an investment of \$3,000,000 of American money. Its iron is of a highly desirable quality, and its output finds ready sale in the American market. The Juragua iron mines represent another \$1,500,-000. This has been a prosperous affair, but its ore now shows signs of exhaustion, and its shipments are greatly reduced. The Sigua iron property swallowed some \$2,000,000 of American money, with no returns. The Guama mine has absorbed about \$1,500,000, and is not remarkable for its promise of revenues.

Three manganese mines are open in the same district. The Panupo represents \$500,000, and the Cuban Manganese Company and the Standard represent \$250,000 each. Work is being carried on, and the proprietors are hopeful of ample results. Some 200 other mining claims are located in the same region, but they are as yet in the form of claims only. Some may develop into paying properties, but the greater number will probably remain as prospect holes and nothing else. In other parts of the island claims have been filed, and talk may be heard of undeveloped possibilities of great wealth. Here and there some mine may pay. But the great riches of Cuba will be found in that which will grow out of the soil, and not in that which lies beneath the surface.

FRUITS.

Some money, particularly that of the United Fruit Company, has gone into lands for fruit This company has acquired extensive growing. plantations on the northeastern coast. Bananas will constitute a large portion of their merchandise, and there is ample assurance that the locality will prove a marked advantage over Jamaica and Central America. Eastern Cuba may well grow all of the bananas and cocoanuts that can be consumed in our Eastern market. In several sections, notably in the vicinity of Havana, Americans have bought tracts, some large and some small, for the cultivation of oranges, pineapples, and vegetables. The greater number of these have met with fair success, and the industry offers many inducements to those of small means who are willing to back their capital with due intelligence and hard work.

TOBACCO AND OTHER INTERESTS.

Nearly three years ago, the Henry Clay and the Bock & Co., -large cigar manufacturing concerns,—effected a consolidation of interests and bought up a number of other factories. The capital was English. American capital, -some \$6,000,000 in amount, -sought a similar consolidation through an organization known as the Havana Commercial Company. This absorbed a large number of the factories which had not been taken in by the Henry Clay-Bock combination. Both of these organizations paid very high prices for the concerns which they purchased. During the month of May last, there was incorporated under the laws of New Jersey a combination known as the Havana Tobacco Company. a branch of the so-called "Tobacco Trust," and its capitalization provides for \$30,000,000 of common stock, \$5,000,000 of preferred stock, and \$10,000,000 in bonds. This organization takes over the Henry Clay-Bock combination, the Havana Commercial Company, and the Cabanas factory, thus giving it control of much the greater part, and practically all of the important part of the Cuban cigar and cigarette trade. Its greatest success depends, naturally, upon the establishment of favorable trade relations between Cuba and the United States. As revision of the American tariff, if not the annexation of Cuba, seems inevitable at some early day, there is sound reason for belief that those who control so large a percentage of the limited output of the choice Vuelta Abajo tobacco are well in the way of ample dividends, notwithstanding their payment of large prices for their purchased proper-

The business of these companies is confined to the manufacture of cigars and cigarettes. The leaf-tobacco business of the island shows no located American capital, although the United States is a large purchaser of Cuban leaf for admixture with American leaf in the manufacture of that which we know as "domestic" cigars. Purchases of leaf for American account and shipment are made by visiting or by resident buyers.

A few Americans have settled in the tobacco regions and engaged in the cultivation of the Cuban leaf. At present there is little room in that line; but if the American market shall become open to the cheaper grades, there are considerable areas in which there is ample promise. At present, these grades are completely barred from the American market by a tariff of some 300 per cent. ad valorem.

It is impossible in the limited space of a magazine article to review in detail the various existing and projected enterprises. Foreign capital,

partly American, has purchased the street-railway system of Havana, and is planning extension in and around that city and construction in other cities. At present Havana is the only city on the island having street-car service. The telegraph system is a government institution, inherited from Spain, and improved and extended by the Signal Corps of the United States army. Telephone systems are in general use in the cities and in many of the larger towns. Banking facilities are ample in the principal cities, but an efficient system of country banks is greatly With the establishment of a general government, and of municipal governments, upon a sound financial basis, there must come a large amount of contract work, notably in the line of sewer and pavement work and in harbor improvements. The country will also need public buildings and school buildings. But all of these must wait for a reëstablishment of productive industry as a basis for national and municipal revenue.

Americans have gone to Cuba with various minor interests representing, in their aggregate, several millions of dollars. These have met with varying success. A few have gone into commercial lines, but, as a rule, their trade has been chiefly confined to the American residents. The greater number of those who have essayed retail trade have made a failure of it. The Spanish merchant is a difficult competitor. Some have opened offices in professional capacities, as doctors, lawyers, dentists, etc. Americans have opened hotels, barrooms, and boarding houses. American real-estate agents and speculators are also in evidence.

CUBA'S INDUSTRIAL FUTURE.

Cuba should not be overlooked as a great field for legitimate enterprises, well and conservatively managed. The failure of many thus far should not be discouraging, inasmuch as their mishap is undoubtedly due to lack of tact or to an absence of sound business methods. It is much to be hoped that the island is now done with the promoter who has no money, but who hopes for a profitable sale of the option which he obtains by such methods as are the custom of his kind. The same is to be hoped regarding the man who goes to Cuba to introduce ice machines or to establish electric-light plants, carrying with him an idea that Cuba and Darkest Africa are correlative terms. Much is said about defective land titles in Cuba. There need be no apprehension on that score if one retains, as he should and would at home, a duly competent legal adviser. Most of the titles are, or can be made, good and clean. Those which are defective are, for the

present, beyond redemption. Under the system of registration employed in the island the question of titles is settled with little difficulty.

Cuba will reach her highest development when she becomes a land of small farmers, with such diversity of products as is readily possible with her soil and her climatic conditions. For years sugar and tobacco have been her great industries. With freer access to the American market, there is no reason why these should not attain much larger proportions than they have yet reached. But Cuba must and will diversify her products. Many very promising lines are open to investors of large or small capital. The labor problem presents a serious difficulty, and no greater mistake could be committed than that of the imposition of any immigration laws which would prohibit or limit the incoming of men and families from the Canary Islands and from certain Spanish provinces. These form the best, most suitable, and most desirable element that comes to the island. The Cubans do not want "coolies" any more than Americans do. They do want and need those who would, in large numbers, be shut out by the unmodified application of the American immigration laws.

The "bonanza" days of sugar raising are past.

Under any reasonable trade treaty, or even under

free trade, the industry would find but a duly normal development. Its extension will depend far more upon an influx of a class of immigrants physically capable of doing the necessary field work than it will upon the readiness of capital to invest in the business. With its present equipment, the island can produce little if anything beyond 1,200,000 tons per year. The doubling of that output would involve an investment of some \$250,000,000 and a large increase in the population. It will be many years before such a combination of capital and labor will be in any danger of glutting the world's market with Cuban sugar. The areas of possible cultivation of the unique Vuelta Abajo tobacco have been fully occupied for many years; but, if given a market, there is room for a vast extension in the production of less valuable but still desirable and readily marketable grades of the weed. With the increase of these two major products, and with the extension of transportation facilities and a due reduction of the present exorbitant rates of transportation; with settled governmental conditions and ready access to the markets of the

United States; and with the opening for pro-

ductive cultivation of those vast areas of middle

and eastern Cuba, that Cuban Question, which has intruded itself into American politics for the last

hundred years, will be definitely settled, and Cuba

will be again the Pearl of the Antilles.

THE CUBAN MUNICIPALITY.

BY VICTOR S. CLARK.

A/HEN our officials assumed the administration of Spain's former colonies, they found in existence a local political unit unfamiliar to their past experience. Many were probably unaware how very distinct from any homologous division in the United States was the Spanish municipality which they then encountered. Yet it had existed continuously in the New World since the time of the discovery, with only such changes as were necessary to keep it in harmony with the institutions of the home country. Its ancestry, traditions, and theory of government, however, were not only different from those of an American township or county, but they represented a line of political development that had begun to diverge from our own centuries before the Christian era.

The Cuban municipality is a lineal descendant of the Roman municipality, which in turn was a product of a Mediterranean civic culture extending back to the days of Troy and Pergamum. The Græco-Italic civilization was urban, and during its long continuance the historical precedence of the rural to the city community was forgotten. The city was regarded as the primary element of the body politic. It ruled the country like a possession or a piece of property. Such a civilization could not develop representative government, which is essentially the political machine of a scattered rural population undominated by any urban center. Rome's easy conquest of the ancient world was partly due to this feature of its political organization. A city could not evade her armies, and when she had once mastered this central ganglion of civic activity all the cooperative life of the dependent territory was paralyzed. The rural organization of the Teutonic tribes was a barrier to her progress. It is from Rome, who in turn borrowed from her predecessors, that we get the theory and methods of centralized administration, which, applied to local government, produce the Cuban municipality. With us, on the other hand, the primary cell of the body politic is the rural community. The local unit is the depositary of all residual authority. and in it originate the ultimate motor impulses of government. We may not formulate this thought clearly in our minds, but unconsciously we accept and apply it in our political reasoning. It is not strange, therefore, that the municipal system of the Spanish colonies was unfamiliar, in both form and theory, to our administrators.

SURVIVALS OF THE ROMAN SYSTEM.

The municipality in Spanish times was essentially an imposed government. Its authority was derived and its activities were directed from above. Sometimes it was principally a taxing unit, instituted primarily for fiscal interests. During the decadence of the Roman Empire municipal officials were made personally responsible for the imperial revenues of their locality. It was obligatory to accept appointment to these unwelcome dignities, and many a subterfuge was adopted by the wealthier residents of the provincial towns to escape honors that often imperilled their private fortunes. In this respect history repeated itself in Spain's colonies. A native work on Philippine customs tells us how a municipal officer loses his patrimony through the expenses of his office, and another involuntary appointee finds his property bonded to the treasury of the state against his will for the fulfillment of his official obligations,—which consisted of wringing a certain sum of taxes from his fellow townsmen.

The judicial functions of the municipal governments early assumed prominence. The name of the principal city officer—the alcalde—is the Arabic word for judge, the familiar el cadi of the "Arabian Nights." Court fees once made these offices very lucrative. They were sold or granted, like English church livings, to wealthy subjects, and until quite recently were disposed of by auction. It was not until 1844 that this practice of selling municipal offices to the highest bidder was entirely discontinued in Cuba.

CUBAN CITY COUNCILS IN EARLY TIMES.

The earliest Cuban municipalities date from They were formed after the precedent of Spain's mediæval cities, with an alcalde and city council, the latter often known in those days as the cabildo. For several hundred years these local bodies were vigorous, and possessed considerable authority. The Cuban cabildos made grants of their hinterland to private petitioners, and exercised other property and judicial rights almost like independent colonies. Some of the city councils in South America actually levied war and instituted rebellions. Spain promptly discouraged such an exuberant exercise of local powers, however, and succeeded in making the councils merely administrative bodies. In 1850, ten of the thirty-two towns of Cuba were in

charge of municipal committees, which consisted simply of a legal officer and two advisers. The main municipal functions at this time were nominally the same as at present, and included the support and supervision of police, primary education, public health, and public improvements. All of these duties were so neglected that Trinidad, with eighteen thousand inhabitants, had no city hall, public water supply, schools, charities, or municipal police. The only public enterprise was a few street lamps supported by private subscription. Similar conditions prevailed in Santiago. In Havana the police received no regular salary, being paid by a share of the fines collected from offenders arrested by them and from certain half-legalized extortions. There was no local tax for public improvement except a carriage tax, the proceeds of which were devoted to paving the streets.

LOCAL GOVERNMENT BEFORE AND AFTER THE WAR.

Modern municipal government in Cuba dates from the close of the ten years' insurrection, in 1878, when the organic municipal laws of Spain were extended to that island. It was this form of local government, very slightly modified by subsequent acts and administrative decrees, that our officials found in operation in Cuba. The military government instituted a number of changes demanded by reconstruction conditions, the most important of which relate to elections and taxation. Some municipalities were also suppressed in the interest of economy, having been created unnecessarily in Spanish times to provide berths for peninsular politicians. The new Cuban constitution contains a municipal title defining in a broad way the relations of the municipality to the other governing powers and determining its form of government. This title may be construed so as to guarantee local autonomy as complete as exists in the United States, for all intervention by superior authority must be justified by some violation of the constitution or of the general laws and confirmed by a judicial decision.

These constitutional provisions place the municipalities upon a new basis—Anglo-Saxon in theory—and make them the depositaries of original powers. As yet this change is only nominal, and the ability of the untried municipal administrators to cope with the new responsibilities involved is by no means demonstrated. The constitution further provides that Congress can regulate the methods by which the municipalities exercise their powers through general legislation, and this will quite possibly lead to a retention of close supervision by the central authorities. It is to be presumed that old habits of administra-

tion and political thought will assert themselves to make the local governments less independent and spontaneous than in our own country.

PRESENT FUNCTIONS OF "ALCALDE" AND COUNCIL.

Until the Cuban Congress enacts laws supplanting those in force, the details of municipal organization and administration will be regulated by the Spanish municipal code, as amended by the orders of the military government. The constitution provides for a municipal council and alcalde elected by direct vote, and gives the council authority to decide all matters relating exclusively to the municipalities, prepare budgets, provide necessary revenues, contract loans, and appoint and discharge employees. The alcalde is an executive officer, with a qualified veto upon the legislation of the council. Every municipality is a judicial district, and justices are elected at municipal elections and paid from the municipal budgets. Other officers have no judicial functions.

WARDS AND DISTRICTS.

A municipality consists of a town and a surrounding rural district. The area of the latter may vary from a few square miles to that of one of our larger counties. It may itself include villages of considerable size. The municipality is divided into wards or barrios, each of which has its ward mayor, who performs administrative functions under the direction of the mayor. He is appointed by the latter from among the residents of the ward, and is not a member of the municipal council. Several barrios form a subdistrict of the municipality and bave at their head a deputy mayor, who is elected by the council from among its members. There is a third municipal subdivision, the electoral district. Councilmen are residents of and represent these. Their limits are determined by the munipal council. Provision is made for minority representation by allowing no elector to vote for the full number of councilmen representing his district. For instance, if there are four aldermen to be chosen,-which is the most usual number,—he can vote for but three of the candidates. The councils are renewed by half every two years.

MUNICIPAL FINANCES.

General taxes are assessed by a board consisting of the municipal council and an equal number of citizens drawn by lot from lists of representative taxpayers. This board also authorizes new taxes and audits municipal accounts. Incomes from real property are assessed at practically their actual value, though an order of the Spanish council required that they should be estimated

at one and a half times the rent in case of rural estates. Plantation crops for occupants' consumption are not included in reckoning incomes. The maximum legal tax rate varies from 6 to 12 per cent. on urban property, and from 2 to 6 per cent. on exclusively agricultural property, according to locality,—the rate being highest in Havana and vicinity. Sugar plantations con-

taining mills pay 8 per cent.

The aggregate revenue of the Cuban municipalities during the last fiscal year was \$4,270,-000, of which \$1,349,000 was derived from the tax on incomes from land and improvements, and \$1,262,000 from the tax on industries and occupations. In the order of their importance the other sources of revenue were, -water service, \$359,000; income from municipal property, \$321,000; abattoir fees, \$297,000; liquor consumption tax, \$183,000; and fines and penalties, \$110,000. The remaining \$389,000 was raised from sixteen other sources, the two most important of which were a carriage and transportation tax and a license fee required of peddlers and venders in the public highways. Urban property pays \$1,034,000, and rural property pays \$315,-000 of the territorial tax. The military government has suppressed the consumption taxes on food, which were formerly a main reliance for local revenues.

The liquor business contributes the largest item to the industrial tax. There are 4,797 drink shops in Cuba, which pay an aggregate tax of \$122,375. Next in order come 123 banking houses, paying \$75,675; 1,482 general stores, paying \$69,508; 485 pharmacies, paying \$41,690; 776 cafés, paying \$36,208, and so on through the 236 minor industries included in the assessment rolls. Formerly the collection of taxes was farmed out to the highest bidder, but this practice has been stopped by the military government, and they are now collected by public officials.

Since the war the general treasury has paid an important share of the municipal expenses. This amounts at present to nearly \$1,500,000, and includes in round numbers \$1,250,000 for public schools, \$150,000 for hospitals and charities, and \$50,000 for jails, besides such assistance as may be given for local sanitation and public works. The expenses charged to municipal revenues are \$1,075,000 for administration, \$1,225,000 for police, \$700,000 for the support of municipal services,—such as street lighting and cleaning, parks, and cemeteries,—and approximately an equal sum for pensions, subventions, and interest. Over \$614,000 of this last item is repre-

sented by interest and amortization of Havana city bonds. Nearly \$118,000 is expended for jails, \$125,000 for public improvements, and \$40,000 for municipal charities.

MUNICIPAL DEBTS.

Of the 128 municipalities in the island at the close of the last fiscal year, only 36 had standing debts of any kind. Exclusive of the city of Havana, which had \$10,000,000 (Spanish gold) six per cent. bonds outstanding, there was no bonded indebtedness, and the total interest charge was less than \$5,000. Most of this was represented by censos, or permanent annuities charged against estates that had in one way or another become city property. Some of these annuities return to the municipal treasuries as income from the endowment funds of municipal schools and hospitals. The total floating debt of all the municipalities was \$170,000, against which the local treasuries held \$152,000 in cash and \$542,000 in credits for back taxes and other unpaid revenues.

THE MUNICIPALITY AS A SCHOOL IN SELF-GOVERNMENT.

The political capacity of a whole nation is demonstrated by its local more than by its general government. The Spanish immigrants in Cuba show greater talent for self-organization,judging by their clubs, labor unions, and cooperative societies, — than the natives. Cuba might therefore appear less fitted than Spain to create a system of vigorous local autonomy. But we must allow for the reaction of the general upon the local government and for the communication of political ideals and methods from the United States. Both of these influences may have a far-reaching effect upon the municipalities, and is already predicted in the new constitution. Many abuses will certainly arise. The cacique, or boss, will flourish upon misappropriated funds and authority. It will be a slow task to instill in the mass of Cubans an intelligent conception of even primary civic This must be done principally obligations. through the concrete and local interests of the municipality,—not only in Cuba, but in Porto Rico and the Philippines. Therefore it is not as an instrument of administration, for here its effectiveness has already been tested, nor as an organization for coöperative and social enterprise, for these functions are as yet largely undeveloped, but as a school for the elementary political education of a people that the Cuban municipality assumes new importance with the birth of the republic.

THE NEW PORTO RICAN LAW CODES.*

CONTACT OF THE SPANISH WITH THE AMERICAN LEGAL SYSTEM.

N the discussion aroused by our annexation of Porto Rico and the Philippines, public attention has been concentrated upon the form of government to be given to these new possessions. The unique character of the juristic questions arising out of our contact with the Spanish-American civilization seems to have escaped at-The report of the Porto Rican Code Commission, which has just been issued from the Government Printing Office, throws an interesting light on the relation between the two systems of law, and furnishes the basis for a closer harmony between them. In order to judge of the commission's completed work we must consider the two reports, which have been issued almost simultaneously. The first commission,—consisting of Joseph F. Daly, of New York; L. S. Rowe, of Pennsylvania; and Juan Hernandez-Lopez, of Porto Rico,—was appointed by President McKinley pursuant to a provision of the act of Congress of April 12, 1900. The term of this commission expired in April, 1901, when it was succeeded by a commission appointed by the Governor of Porto Rico. The personnel of the second commission was practically the same as the first, except that the Hon. J. M. Keedy was substituted for Judge Daly, and Dr. L. S. Rowe was made chairman of the commission.

The plan adopted by the first commission, as shown by the report, was to deal with the immediate and pressing reforms, without attempting a general revision of the Spanish codes. The second report, which covers the work of the commission from April 12, 1901, to January 1, 1902, and which is published by the Porto Rican Government in eight volumes-four in English and four in Spanish-contains a systematic revision of the Civil Code, the Penal Code, the Code of Criminal Procedure, and the Political Code. Most of the recommendations of the first report have been embodied in the codes prepared by the second commission.

The most important question to which the first commission addressed itself was the revision of the organic act of Porto Rico. The measure as drafted by Congress was in many respects fragmentary, especially in the sections dealing with the organization of the executive and judicial branches of the government. Congress evidently did not fully realize that, in a country with laws and traditions essentially different from our own, the organization of an administrative department cannot be effected by reference to institutions established in the other Territories of the United For instance, in the section relating to the attorney-general of Porto Rico, the Foraker Act provides that the attorney-general "shall have all the powers and discharge all the duties provided by law for an attorney of a Territory of the United States." The restricted duties of an attorney of a Territory are not sufficient to meet the requirements of a densely populated island accustomed to a system of administration under which the attorney-general is the head of a complex judicial system, -a kind of minister of justice. The same is true of the other heads of executive departments.

In the revision of the organic act the commission was compelled, therefore, to formulate with great detail the powers and functions of executive On the question of the organization of the legislative branch of the government the recommendations of the commission are divided. The majority favors the introduction of a bi-cameral elective assembly modeled after the legisla. tures of the Territories. The minority advocates the retention of the present system, -an appointive upper house and an elective lower house.

ROMAN LAW NOT DISCARDED.

As regards the system of private law, the recommendations of the commission possess a peculiar significance. In Porto Rico we have, for the first time, come into direct contact with the Spanish system. It is true, that in both California and New Mexico we find the Spanish law in force, but it soon gave way to the American system, and the influence of the Spanish inhabitants was rapidly overcome by the influx of immigrants from the East and North. In Porto Rico, however, we have to deal with a densely populated island which, because of climatic con-

^{*} Report of the United States Commission to Revise and Compile the Laws of Porto Rico. Parts I., II., and III.—Com-mentaries on Proposed Revision. Parts IV. and V.—Text of Revision.—Washington, Government Printing Office. Report of the Insular Code Commission, San Juan, Porto Rico

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Introductory Volume.—Commentary on Revision.
Volume I.—Revision of the Civil Code.
Volume II.—The Political Code.
Volume III.—The Penal Code.
Volume IV.—The Code of Criminal Procedure.

ditions, will never attract a large number of persons from the North. The system of law must, therefore, always remain in close harmony with the inherited ideas and traditions of a population essentially different from that which we find in the States of the Union. Both reports furnish ample evidence that the commission realized the danger of attempting to force upon the people of Porto Rico a new system of law which would be certain to arouse a feeling of distrust and resent-

ment in the native population.

It is furthermore evident, from the commentary contained in the report, that considerable pressure was brought to bear upon the commission to sweep away the Spanish system at one fell blow, and to substitute for it the codes of one of the States of the Union. In this attitude toward foreign systems of law there is involved the most serious danger incident to the contact with civilizations different from our own. The training of the American lawyer is in the common law. Little or no attention is given to the great body of civil or Roman law, which is at the root of the legal systems of Continental Europe and of the entire South American continent. ignorance of foreign systems explains the feeling, so prevalent at the bar, that any system other than the common law is unable to meet the re-We are not always quirements of justice. mindful of the fact that the Roman law exercised a marked influence on the development of the common law, and that during the last two centuries there has been a gradual approach of the two systems toward a common standard, especially in the law of commercial relations.

THE CIVIL CODE.

In the Civil Code, the points of contrast between the Spanish and American systems relate to the most delicate parts of the structure,namely, the law of inheritance and of domestic relations. The theory of the family evolved in the English system of jurisprudence, and upon which our law rests, is based upon the principles of individual liberty and individual responsibility. The father's legal obligation toward his children ceases at his death, just as his power over them terminates with their majority. Under the Spanish law, the principle of family solidarity and parental authority is emphasized. The patria potestas, while greatly circumscribed, does not cease when the child becomes of age. The family as the social unit is the basic idea of the system, and in the logical development of this principle the obligation of the father does not terminate with his death. The children are given a legal right to a certain share in the estate, and can only be disinherited for certain reasons specified in the law. It is evident that such a system, whatever its merits or defects, cannot he swept away without unsettling domestic relations. The commission has retained the feature of the Spanish law which gives to children the right to a minimum share in the estate of their parents. In the revision of other portions of the code the same conservative spirit has prevailed.

THE PENAL CODE.

In dealing with the Penal Code the commission was able to act with a freer hand in both the substantive law and in the law of procedure. The Spanish system, which was largely influenced by the earlier Italian codes, is out of touch with modern standards of criminal jurisprudence. It bears the earmarks of the period of class privilege, and, as applied in Porto Rico, many of its provisions presuppose the existence of slavery. Its primitive character is furthermore illustrated by the fact that, while offences against the person are treated leniently, offences against property are visited with a punishment both harsh and cruel.

The system of criminal procedure is, if possible, even more antiquated than the substantive It gives to the courts and the law officers of the government a measure of discretion in dealing with accused persons which leads to the worst forms of tyranny and oppression. The incomunicado, by which the accused is isolated and subjected to every device that cunning can devise in order to extract a confession, is the first step in the administration of justice. The extraordinary power and influence given to the district attorney, or "fiscal," tends still further to strengthen the position of the prosecution. In the actual conduct of the trial the accused is first put on the stand, and the attitude of the district attorney naturally places him in a position in which he must prove his innocence. The "presumption of guilt," of which so much has been said, is not to be found in the law itself, but rather in the position in which the accused finds himself by reason of the manner of conducting the trial.

In the revision of the Penal Code the commission evidently determined to bring the Porto Rican system into close harmony with American standards. The code submitted, which is now in force in the island, is constructed upon the same principles as the penal codes of California and Montana, which, in their turn, are based upon the David Dudley Field code. While the change is radical, it cannot be said to involve any danger to the orderly development of the legal institutions of the island. The only possible hardship involved—if such it be—is the necessity

imposed on the native lawyers of acquainting themselves with a new code. To the people, as a whole, the new system cannot help but work great benefit, as it assures to the ignorant and helpless peon effective guarantees against the arbitrary acts of the officers of the minor judiciary.

THE POLITICAL CODE.

The fundamental and irreconcilable differences between the Spanish and American administrative systems forced upon the commission the task of formulating a political code. In the early stages of civil government in Porto Rico, great inconvenience was caused by the uncertainty as to the relation of the Spanish law, which was continued in force by the Foraker Act, to the new administrative system introduced by the establishment of civil government. The political code prepared by the commission, which, with important modifications in the chapters on elections and local government, was adopted by the Legislative Assembly at its last session, covers the entire field of administration. The subjects treated are: Jurisdiction over Persons and Property, Citizenship and Domicile, the Political and Judicial Divisions of Porto Rico, the Legislative Assembly, Executive Officers, Judicial Officers, General Provisions Relating to Different Classes of Officers, Nominations for Insular and Local Officers, Elections, Local Government, Public Safety and Police, Education, Highways and Roads and Public Works, Revenue and Taxation, Miscellaneous Provisions, and the Insular and Local Civil Service.

The most serious question that presented itself was involved in the possibility of assuring to the towns a larger measure of local self-government. The Spanish system is one of extreme centralization, the Governor-General and his agents maintaining minute control over local officials, and to a very large extent directing local policy. No opportunity was therefore given for the development of that local initiative and energy which is indispensable to the smooth working of a decentralized system.

The general principle which has guided the commission throughout the formulation of this code is to place the initiative and the primary responsibility for the performance of local services upon the town officials, but at the same time to reserve to the central government sufficient control to guarantee a definite minimum of efficiency. The code recognizes the fact that the qualities requisite for the successful working of a system of self-government are not of spontaneous growth, but are the result of painfully acquired experience, and of the gradual strengthening of national character.

The fact that the commission, while proceeding in a conservative spirit, has nevertheless succeeded in bringing the Spanish system into harmony with American standards, is at ribute to the elasticity of our institutions. The test is one that we shall have to meet on a far larger scale in the decades to come, and it is well that in our first contact with the new situation the conditions, both political and economic, have been so favorable to a successful issue.

AMENITIES OF CITY PEDESTRIANS.

BY LOUIS WINDMÜLLER.

O corporal exercise is better adapted to promote health, none more reluctantly practiced, than walking. Americans will patiently suffer the indignities that public vehicles inflict rather than move their feet. They use cars which are close in winter, draughty in summer, to bring them from airless workshops, where they have passed their day, to spend the night in unventilative homes. Ask for directions in any city and you are carefully told what trolley will con-When you inquire how to reach your vey you. destination afoot, the same courteous stranger is apt to leave you without reply, but with a suggestive shrug of his shoulders; the man who persists in walking where he can ride is considered a fool.

The tortures endured by frequenters of the

trolleys of cities during "rush" hours are excruciating; many passengers could lessen by their absence the pressure, if they would walk all reasonable distances. They rather permit insolent conductors to elbow and jostle them, in a crowded car which jerks at every stop and turn with such violence that hapless strappers are huddled together, or thrown on the knees of compressed sitters, while they must listen to the familiar ejaculations: "Move forward," "Step lively," and "Fares." The pedestrian, independent of motors, strides over comfortable sidewalks and looks with complacent pity on the, often slowly, passing victims of their indolence.

Avenues like "Commonwealth" in Boston, "Delaware" in Buffalo, which are beautified by art or nature, are practically deserted, while the

"Champs Elysees" in Paris and the "Thiergarten Strasse" in Berlin are frequented by appreciative promenaders. Our parks,—"Central" in New York, "Lincoln" in Chicago, and "Fairmount" in Philadelphia,—are chiefly patronized on fine Sundays, by persons who at other times are confined in tenement-house districts. In those retreats they refresh their eyes by the verdure of vegetation and their brains by freedom from agitation. City lungs are a blessing to the poor, who would not find their equal on country highways, if they could reach them.

We may enjoy the beauty of virgin nature in secluded forests when we climb mountains; but the gratification becomes tiresome when we find nobody to share it. Even Mr. Burroughs has been obliged sometimes to content himself with the company of his faithful dog. A comrade is always welcome but not indispensable in streets, where the pleasure of exercise is heightened by ever-changing sights and sounds. The most harmonious cries of street venders are less sweet than the melodies of singing birds; flowers that greet us from windows of houses lack the fragrance of nature. But I consider the melodious chimes of city churches preferable to the thunder of Niagara, and the friendly look of a charming woman to the vista from Pike's Peak. Dickens found in every street of London a subject worthy of description by his marvelous pen; personal observation enabled Victor Hugo to delineate the old streets of Paris, as if he had lived at the time of Quasimodo.

Most Americans dress on streets as they do at home. Even in Washington, uniforms are conspicuous by their absence. I remember that policemen and railwaymen objected against donning such "livery" until public-spirited citizens, to demonstrate that it would not degrade them, wore it at public functions. But on the streets of Continental Europe uniforms are in evidence wherever you go, and of the young wearers too

many are inclined to swagger.

It is amusing to watch the promiscuous variety of teams that pass through our thoroughfares,—beer wagons and trucks, ambulances and fire engines, freely intermingle with autos, and in many streets predominate; while in fashionable thoroughfares and parks carriages are in the majority. Vehicles used for business purposes are seldom prohibited in a country ruled by business men. On "Rotten Row" in London, the "Cascine" in Florence, a hired hack is not tolerated. Private conveyances and riders absorb the driveways, promenaders the sidewalks.

In no other cities do we find buildings of such different architecture as on the busy streets of Chicago and New York. Squatty houses, built

long ago for residences, have been altered into warehouses, or are being demolished to make room for modern structures; interplaced between them and the storehouses of a past generation, often overshadowing them, are the tall buildings called skyscrapers, that give to narrow streets, where they prevail, a gloomy appearance and a baroque aspect to the rest. The monotonous uniformity of brownstone and brick houses in residential thoroughfares is gradually changing, by the erection of a variety of "American basement" dwellings of a modern and more cheerful exterior.

To "dress" windows of retail shops with seductive taste, an accomplishment the practice of which has always prevailed in Europe, has become more general here; a small dealer is wont to place the best part of his stock with exquisite consideration of color and symmetry on revolving glasses in his showcase, before the astonished eyes of a passing stranger, and thus allure him to enter. The signs which French shopkeepers display are more attractive than ours. Lately shrewd Parisians have returned to the ancient habit of employing artists to design, sometimes to execute, them. This gives to ambitious painters an opportunity to demonstrate the skill of their brush, and makes the thoroughfare more attractive.

The street of one city differs from every other; and almost every one has, to the pedestrian, a peculiar charm of its own. We must not look from the tops of 'buses nor from the windows of cars if we want to know and appreciate an interesting way, --- we must measure its length with our steps. On Market Street, San Francisco, we meet the original types of our slopers, and freeze on the shady side while we broil in the sun on the other. On Canal Street, New Orleans, we admire the fashions and gait of Creole beauties, and wonder at ships that lie on the elevated Mississippi, above the surface. The "Nevsky Prospect," in St. Petersburg, is crowded with drojkies rapidly driven by unkempt, unwashed Tartars, dressed in long kaftans. "Grande Rue de Pera," the only street in Constantinople where we can walk with a certain degree of comfort, we meet almost every human type of the Orient and Occident; but encounter not as many canines as formerly, nor as many as continue to hover on the crooked alleyways of Stamboul.

Method will add to the satisfaction of walking. When I pass an organ or a band of music, I love to measure my steps by the notes I hear; where none are audible, I rehearse those I happen to remember myself. Half a century ago, when I returned with my class in rank and file from an

outing, we kept step to the tunes of some favorite college song, like "Guadeamus;" I have continued this habit, humming any tune adaptable to my step, like "Yankee Doodle" and the stirring battle hymn of Julia Ward Howe. Going with ease, at the rate of three miles an hour, I breathe through my nose to filter the air that enters my lungs and give full play to my swinging arms. I exhale on the second double step the air I inhaled on the first, and lean the back of my neck against my shirt collar, to look into a blue sky or gray clouds, when I veer my eyes from the turmoil of the immediate surroundings.

The Latin advice, "Post coenam stabis seu passus mille meabis," I modify by resting after every meal. It is pernicious to strain an overloaded stomach, and I would rather go without food than without walk. Obstacles increase the pleasure, vexations cannot dampen the ardor for the luxury I covet most. Rain or shine, in every degree of heat or cold, I go, when feasible, several hours a day,—twice as long when my spirits are depressed. In warm weather it may increase perspiration, but that is a discomfort which must willingly be borne. H. W. Beecher said: "There are many troubles which you cannot cure by the Bible or hymn book, but which you can cure by perspiration and fresh air." External gymnasiums are scarce; golf and most other outdoor plays require some exertion of the brain. when we walk we can give the mind a complete rest, and graduate our effort according to our strength. Let those who are feeble walk, at an easy gait, half a mile,-when their muscles strengthen, a mile, -and they will soon find the exercise a pleasure instead of a penance; it will dispel the gloom which they hugged, and their aches will vanish. Air is man's element; he has no more excuse to refrain from walking through it than a fish would have from swimming in water.

The ruddy cheeks and stalwart figures of policemen, the bright eyes and elastic step of letter carriers, demonstrate the healthfulness of their calling; those whose occupation compels indoor work, like typesetters and tailors, look pale and haggard.

The idle tramp is happier than the busy millionaire; still happier are those who go forth with a distinct aim,—physicians to help the sick, ministers to console the afflicted. The ambulating journeymen of Germany belonged to this class. They formed associations for mutual help and protection. When an apprentice had served his time and was admitted to a guild, he shouldered his knapsack and wandered from place to place over the continent trying to find work. Where he found none the poor traveler was en-

tertained free of charge in the hostelry of his craft. Not all were as pretentious as the "Hotel des Brasseurs," the brewer's hall on the market place in Brussels. But all were equally hospitable. When work had been found and finished, he continued his journey with a light heart; as soon as he had acquired sufficient experience and saved enough money to marry, he established himself as "Meister," master of his trade.

A banker, troubled with gout, was obliged yearly to go to Saratoga. Having lost his fortune, he became a broker to support his family; going from house to house, from morning until night, he solicited the orders of his former associates. This proved to be a more efficient cure than water; the gout disappeared, he became healthier and stronger than he had ever been. Another friend, who daily walked to his town office, retired with a competence from active business. He built a manor house on a vast estate, and filling his stables with horses and carriages, he exercised his roadsters to keep them in good condition, but failed to exert himself. Rolling wherever he wanted to go on the luxurious cushions of his vehicles, his blood ceased to circulate, and he lay down to die.

The common excuse of those who preach but fail to practice exercise is want of time; in pursuit of fortune or power they forget their well-being and shorten their days more than they would require for the proper care of their bodies while they live. Pedestrians should combine and form federations like the "League of American Wheelmen," for mutual protection and encouragement.

Successful authors, men of thought, have been fond of the practice: Walter Scott walked fifteen miles a day, James Russell Lowell never rode where he could walk, William Wordsworth found his promenade more exhilarating than old port. The chief editor of a large daily newspaper marches five miles every night to his distant home, when, at 1:30 in the morning, he leaves his office. President Roosevelt is an ardent walker.

Habitual walking, combined with diet and other corporal discipline, promotes digestion and inhibits dyspepsia. Obesity, with its consequences, has no terrors for a pedestrian; he can never be troubled with paralysis or apoplexy.

For every ailment, activity in the open air is a more effective remedy than Christian Science, more reliable than patent medicine, and more soothing than physicians' advice. Fitting a sound body to a sound mind, it pacifies a ruffled temper and clears the tired brain of cobwebs.

LEADING ARTICLES OF THE MONTH.

THE LEADER OF THE MINE WORKERS.

N the August McClure's, Mr. Lincoln Steffens has a brief and very eulogistic sketch of John Mitchell, the President of the United Mine Workers, who is the leading figure in the anthracite coal miners' strike.

Mr. Steffens says that Mitchell was against the strike at the beginning; that he thought the hard-coal miners' organization was too new, and that it was composed too largely of men who were foreigners, and who had not yet learned their lesson of self-restraint and sound principles.

So Mitchell was overruled.

Mr. Steffens says, moreover, that Mitchell was decidedly against calling the convention to consider the question of calling out the bituminous miners. The soft-coal workers are under contract, and Mitchell, who had contended in the steel strike that Shaffer had made a mistake in allowing strikers to break contracts, kept the call for the Indianapolis convention in his pocket for six weeks because he believed it was unbusinesslike to consider at all the calling out of the bituminous men, who were satisfied, and working on a basis they had agreed to work on with their employers. He hoped that a settlement could be made in the interval. Mitchell's final action on July 17, in advising the bituminous miners not to strike, is fully in line with Mr. Steffens' ideas of the labor leader's high standards and purposes.

A NEW TYPE OF LABOR LEADER.

"If," Mr. Steffens says, "Mitchell, appealing, as I think he will, privately or publicly, to the men's sense of honor, can keep them from voting to repudiate the soft-coal union's contracts, then he will have triumphed the greater for his defeats and patience, and organized labor the world over will have scored a most conspicuous victory." Mr. Steffens insists on the fact that Mitchell's policy is so to conduct the business of organized labor that its leaders will have credit with any business man and their contracts of certain value. He represents in the fullest sense the class of labor leader of the new order, who talk little and work hard, and whom the workingmen have turned to because they are leaders who could command, and who knew how to compromise with their employers.

"Such a leader John Mitchell, the young president of the United Mine Workers, is trying to prove himself. He is a small, spare man, with

black eyes steady in a white, smooth face, which, with his habitual clerical garb and sober mien, gives him the appearance of a priest. The breaker boys find him kind; their elders approach him easily, but only on business, which they talk while he listens coldly, giving answers that are soft but short, cast in the form of advice or a direction, with the reason for it. He is never dictatorial, only patient and reasonable. He has no vanity, no fear for his dignity. It is said he is brave. Once during a strike in Pana, Ill., his men set out to attack some non-union men at work behind a stockade with guards who shot to kill. The strikers seized two of their employers, and putting them in front, made them lead the attack. Mitchell heard of it, and running to the scene, rescued the 'bosses.' His men turned on him in wrath; but he explained, and led off the captives from the furious crowd.

"But it is no one trait, however conspicuous, that will win success for Mitchell, if he wins (and that is a question which may be answered before this article is printed). At present he stands not quite midway between Wall Street and the mines. He has the personal respect of When President McKinley was shot, and the news spread to the coal region, the workmen gathered into a mob, crying, 'Who shot our President?' They dispersed when they learned that it wasn't President Mitchell who was shot. When Mitchell went to New York in 1900 to see J. P. Morgan, the financial head of the coal business, he was not received. This year an associate of Mr. Morgan happened to meet him socially; and when he reported what manner of labor leader Mitchell was, Mr. Morgan received him at his down-town office."

HOW LABOR IS ORGANIZED.

R. RAY STANNARD BAKER describes in the August World's Work the character of representative labor unions and how they perform their functions, and discusses the project of

a general federation of labor.

He calls attention to the epoch-making event of the complete unification of the coal miners. This, he thinks, is, with the formation of the United States Steel Corporation, one of the greatest economic events of our time. United Mine Workers have now the largest membership, and perhaps the greatest influence, of all trade unions ever formed. The membership is more than 190,000, supporting a population of nearly a million people, and influencing a much greater number. But it is only the greatest individual instance of the tremendous movement, for to-day every tenth voter in America is a member of a labor organization.

COMMUNITY OF INTEREST IN LABOR UNIONS.

Mr. Baker shows how the familiar idea of the community of interest, which Mr. Morgan and others have applied to the steel factories and railroads, is being carried out on the side of labor. In the councils of the American Federation of Labor are officers of such organizations as the United Mine Workers, the Brotherhood of Carpenters, the Machinists, the Cigarmakers, the Garment Workers, the Iron and Steel Workers, Textile Workers, the Painters, the Clerks, the Coopers, and several score of other national and international unions, representing a membership of 1,250,000 men. A few prominent unions are still outside the combination, -four brotherhoods of the railway workers, the Bricklayers, and the Plasterers, for instance.

CENTRALIZATION OF POWER.

Just as there is a centralization of power in the hands of a few men who are running our railroads and making our steel, so trade-unionism is tending toward centralization of power in national and international unions, each of a single industry, the governing board of which, and especially the president himself, is yearly getting greater power. A few years ago the members of almost any local union,—say, in New York City,—could throw down their tools and strike; but now permission must usually be obtained from the officers of the national organization, who are perhaps located in a distant city.

THE ORGANIZATION OF THE UNIT, THE LOCAL UNION.

"Each local union has the regular officers, including the important business agent (once called ' walking delegate,' a name now generally discarded). One officer, usually the secretary-treasurer or the business agent in large unions, sometimes both, receives a salary equal to the pay which he would get if he worked at his trade, together with small expense allowances. Members are usually required under penalty of fines to attend a meeting of the union once a month, or once in three months, although in some cases, where the unions are very large, no such requirement exists. For instance, 'Big Six,' New York Typographical Union, including all the printers of the city, would require a very large building to contain its 5,500 members. But this is the largest local

union in America. The cigar makers have no fewer than ten local unions in New York City with a membership of nearly 6,000, an average of 600 members to the union."

INITIATION FEES.

"The greatest diversity of opinion exists as to initiation fees. In some unions a large fee is collected,—sometimes as high as \$50, or \$75, or more,—on the ground that a man who pays a large sum to get in will be more likely to remain loyal; but other successful unions charge as little as \$2,—the cigar makers' fee being only \$3. The dues subsequently collected are usually about one dollar a month, this low payment often including liberal benefits in case of sickness, strike, or death. Many of the unions now use the stamp system in collecting their dues. A little book is presented each week or each month to the treasurer, who pastes in and cancels the official stamps of the union for the amount of the dues paid. It is a sight worth seeing on a Saturday or a Monday to watch the workmen, or their wives, or their children, each with a book, lined up in a long row at the office of the treasurer of certain unions, waiting to pay their dues."

THE AMERICAN FEDERATION OF LABOR.

Nearly every large city has a central labor union, a body made up of delegates from all or nearly all the local unions of every trade.

"But the greatest of all American organizations is the National Federation,—the American Federation of Labor, -of which Samuel Gompers is president, with headquarters in Washington. A great combination of national and international unions, with yearly conventions of delegates, a staff of well-paid officers and organizers, an extensively circulated magazine, this federation includes nearly all the great national and international unions. The American Federation of Labor was founded in 1881, and is now made up of eighty-two national and international unions composed of 9,494 local unions, 16 State federations, 206 city central labor unions, and 1,051 local unions not attached to national bodies. The total membership is over 1,250,000,—a body of men united for the single purpose of advancing the cause of labor, and yet taking no political action. This number represents something more than three-quarters of all the trade-unionists in America. The federation is supported by a small tax on affiliated organizations, its receipts last year being about \$71,000, its expenses \$68,000, mostly for salaries and organizing expenses, and for the annual convention. Its chief work consists in securing legislation in the United States Congress, in harmonizing and directing union

effort in the struggles common to all union labor; in using its influence in securing the use of union label goods and in behalf of certain kinds of strikes, and in urging union labor everywhere to refuse to purchase goods manufactured or sold by 'unfair' concerns. Every month a long list of these 'unfair' houses appears in the American Federationist under the heading, 'We Don't Patronize.' Not infrequently it is able to prevent ill-advised strikes. The federation has been instrumental in securing the passage of many laws which have greatly improved the condition of American workmen. A bare list of them is evidence enough of the remarkable rise in standards during the last twenty-five years of wages, comfort, and independence among the workers of the country."

Mr. Baker thinks that the old method of the strike is more and more looked upon as a thing to be avoided if possible,—as a last resort, an appeal to brute force when diplomacy fails. He thinks this feeling among workmen is due to the fact that employers have generally come to recognize the union as a sober business reality.

THE DEMANDS OF AMERICAN LABOR.

The demands of the American Federation of Labor, made in resolutions at its annual convention, will give an idea of what American workmen are thinking about, and what they seek. Here is the list of the demands:

1. Compulsory education.

- 2. The repeal of all conspiracy and penal laws affecting seamen and other workmen, incorporated in the federal and State laws of the United States.
- 3. A legal workday of not more than eight hours.
- 4. Sanitary inspection of workshops, mines, and homes.
- Liability of employers for injury to health, body, and life.
- The abolition of the contract system in all public works.
 - 7. The abolition of the sweating system.
- 8. The municipal ownership of street cars, waterworks, and gas and electric plants for the distribution of heat, light, and power.

9. The nationalization of telegraphs, telephones, railways, and mines.

10. The abolition of the monopoly system of land-holding and the substitution therefor of the title of occupancy only.

11. Direct legislation and the principle of referendum in all legislation.

12. The abolition of the monopoly privilege of issuing money and substituting therefor a system of direct issuance to and by the people.

ARBITRATION AS A PREVENTIVE OF STRIKES.

N view of the increasing importance of the part played by the labor unions in all recent differences between employer and employee in this country, there has been much discussion of the proposition for compulsory arbitration as a means of preventing, or at least greatly reducing, the number of costly and prolonged strikes. The problem is restated in an article by Mr. John Handiboe, contributed to the July number of the North American Review. Mr. Handiboe lays much stress on the point that labor unions have come to stay and must be taken into all the calculations of industrial enterprise. He decries the mistaken policy of many employers in refusing to treat with employees as a body of united workmen, and in declaring their determination to consider these men only as individuals. Referring to the history of labor disturbances in the anthracite region of Pennsylvania, this writer names as one source of irritation and disturbance the continued refusals of the operators to meet the miners in joint conference as to wage scales or grievances, and to submit to arbitration matters in dispute.

If, however, labor unions are to be recognized and treated with as legitimate organizations, Mr. Handiboe lays down the proposition that all unions, whether local, state, or national, should be incorporated. This should be done in order that the two parties to labor disputes should be on an equal footing, the common ground being equal responsibility for violation of contracts. "At present," says Mr. Handiboe, "labor unions can abrogate a contract, real or implied, at a moment's warning, without the least fear of consequential punishment of any kind; and there is nothing to prevent employers doing likewise. There must be created a responsibility for the performance of wage or work contracts as a basis for the elimination of all deterrents that now prevent cure of the strike evil. For this purpose, there should be a binding contract entered into by employer and employee, and he who violates it should be held accountable under the law. Such contract cannot be made, however, unless employers recognize the labor union, which many of them now refuse to do, -and unless labor unions become incorporated, a step to which they have no inclination."

COMPULSORY ARBITRATION AND PERSONAL RIGHTS.

Mr. Handiboe's argument for compulsory arbitration is based not on the predilections of either capital or labor, but on the interests of the great public, which is indeed the chief sufferer when a strike occurs. In his view the capitalist "who has nothing to arbitrate" is equally at fault with

the labor leader, who opposes compulsory arbitration from a fear that it might deprive him of some of his present power in the union, and the highest good of the community demands that both parties be brought to some kind of settlement. To the objection that a law designed for the adjustment of labor disputes would be unconstitutional because it would invade the rights and privileges of the individual and take out of his hands the prerogative of controlling his own business, Mr. Handiboe replies that theoretically the objection is true, but practically it is not true. "For the good of the community, laws are enacted and enforced which deprive men of thorough freedom of action and regulate even the degree of personal liberty which they may enjoy. In his own home he must comport himself in such manner that he shall not annoy his neighbors. He must send his children to school whether he wants to or not. He must build his house, his factory, or his theater as the law specifies. cannot dress as he may elect, although he boasts that the contrary is the case. The employer should not be permitted to endanger the peace of any community by an appeal to the opinions of Mr. Bounderby; and the employee should be prevented from putting into practice the teachings of the ranting demagogue. A compulsory arbitration law need not regulate the wages paid by any man to any other man. But it would provide for the hearing and determination of a wage dispute, when the parties to that dispute are not inclined to end the matter for themselves."

HOW THE PUBLIC INTEREST WOULD BE FURTHERED.

After referring to the compulsory arbitration law which has now been in successful operation in New Zealand for several years, Mr. Handiboe concludes his article as follows:

"Unions having been incorporated, a system of contracts provided, and a compulsory arbitration law enacted, the plans for preventing strikes could be said to be well advanced. Such a law need not be invoked in all cases, but only when all other efforts toward the settlement of a dispute shall have been exhausted. The employer and his employee should endeavor to adjust matters at issue between them without the interference of anybody else,—walking delegate, union official, or other functionary. And it is obvious that, with a compulsory arbitration law enacted, such adjustments would be reached with growing frequency. In no case should a 'sympathy' strike, or a strike in a whole labor district where only a local grievance is to be determined, be permitted under a law of compulsory arbitration. Unless the dispute of itself spread beyond a local area, the district officers of a

union should not be called upon to conduct negotiations or direct the actions of the working men. The smaller the area of disaffection shall be, the greater will be the probability of a peaceful settlement. But if, as is now too frequently the case, neither side is inclined to give ear to the other, the preëminence of the public should be demonstrated. Then compulsory arbitration should be invoked and enforced, and recalcitrants should be punished for violation of the orders of the board. With the unions, as well as the employers, incorporated, this could be With compulsory arbitration operative, we should have closer relations between capitaland labor; fewer disturbances of business; the elimination of private armies; less marching and intimidation; less rioting and bloodshed; less financial loss to the community; fewer strikes; and the placing of real public welfare above supposititious private right."

A NEW FORM OF PROFIT-SHARING.

THOSE economists who are working out plans for the partnership of capital and labor in industrial enterprises are seeking a broader basis than the mere distribution in cash of a percentage of the profits among wage-earners. A carefully thought-out project of industrial partnership is presented in the current number of Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, by Mr. Alexander Purves, treasurer of Hampton Institute. Mr. Purves has taken account of the various objections that have been raised to ordinary profit-sharing, -as, for example, the well-grounded fear that wage-earners would often make an unwise use of profits thus distributed, -and the result of his studies on the subject is a carefully-matured plan by which he believes that the interests of both capitalists and wage-earners will be conserved, while the services of the employees will increase in value in direct ratio with the rewards of their industry.

REGULAR DIVIDENDS AND WAGES PAID FIRST.

Briefly, Mr. Purves' proposition may be stated as follows: A binding agreement will provide for the payment of the regular standard of cash wages to all employees of the concern, including the officials and the management, and will also name a definite amount which shall be determined to be a just and fair annual return to capital for its simple use; this amount, however, will not exceed, say, 60 per cent. of the average established net earnings. The agreed amount to be paid annually (in quarterly or half-yearly installments) as a cumulative dividend on the common stock of the corporation; it is to be especially understood that

the company by a two-thirds vote of its common stockholders may issue, if needed for additional capital, preferred stock; wages to be a first claim upon the assets, and the dividends to capital stock to have the first claim upon the net earnings, and to be cumulative at a rate fixed by agreement. After the payment of such dividends as are first charged upon a net part of the business, 20 per cent, of the net profits then remaining shall be set aside in a contingent fund, and the balance of the annual net profits then remaining shall be held in the business, -one-half for the benefit of the stockholders, and one-half for the employees (under certain agreements and restrictions to be explained). Thus the surplus earnings in excess of the regular cash dividends would continue to be accumulated in the business, and so increase the security of the original investment, while the power of the stockholders to control the management of the concern would be in no way diminished or endangered.

DISPOSITION OF SURPLUS EARNINGS.

This will be effected, Mr. Purves explains, by the following method: It is proposed that, after the regular cash dividends have been paid to capital, and a percentage set aside for the contingent fund, the annual stock dividends shall be declared, covering the amount of the surplus earnings, which are to be held in the business; that the certificates issued for these stock dividends shall be in the nature of deferred stock debentures, which will have no voting power, and which shall be subordinate in every respect to the common stock, both as to dividends and principal, so that these deferred stock debentures shall not be entitled to any dividend interest whatsoever, except when earned during the then current year, and not until after the dividends upon any preferred stock shall have been paid or set aside, nor until the agreed sum (equal to 60 per cent. of the established average net earnings) shall have been paid or set aside for the dividends upon the common stock, and a contribution made to the contingent fund. These deferred stock debentures are to receive dividends at a rate not exceeding 6 per cent. per annum when earned in the then current year, and in no sense are these dividends to be cumulative. In the event of liquidation or dissolution, the common and preferred stock shall be paid in full before any payment shall be made upon the deferred stock debentures: but the debentures shall then receive all of the assets remaining after the payment in full of the preferred and common stock and of all outstanding indebtedness, and the debentures shall always be subordinate to the general creditors of the company.

STOCK DEBENTURES HELD IN TRUST FOR EMPLOYEES.

These deferred stock debentures are all to be issued to a trustee, -one - half to be held in trust for the benefit of the common stockholders; and one-half to be considered as extra wages, and to be held by the trustee for the benefit of the employees. Cash dividends on all deferred stock debentures when declared are to be paid to the trustee, who will disburse them, -one-half to the holders of the common stock pro rata, and one-half to the employees in proportion to the prospective (or respective?) amounts standing to their credit on their debenture books. Mr. Purves explains the workings of his scheme by the following illustration: Supposing the capital of the concern to be \$1,000,000, and the net earnings for several years to have averaged \$200,000 a year. Sixty per cent. of these earnings, or \$120,000, would be the amount agreed on as the annual cash dividend to capital represented by the common stock; 20 per cent. of the balance of these earnings, or, say, \$16,000, would be the amount to be paid into the contingent fund, and at the end of the first year of the operation of the plant the balance, or sum of \$64,000, would be held in the business; but de ferred stock debentures to cover this amount would be issued to the trustee,-\$32,000 to be held for the use of the stockholders, and \$32,000 as extra wages to be held for the employees.

At the end of the second year, after the payment of the dividends to the common stock and a percentage to the contingent fund, a dividend would be declared upon the \$64,000 of deferred stock debentures, and for the balance of the net profits still remaining another issue of deferred stock depentures would be made to the trustee, and so on from year to year. Thus the effect of the arrangement would be that the surplus earnings of the corporation would be capitalized in the form of deferred stock debentures, and held in trust for the joint interest of the original owners or their assigns and their employees. The amount of deferred stock debentures to which each employee is entitled would be ascertained each year by determining the proportion that his wages for the year bears to the whole salary list for that period. This amount is then set down in the debenture book of the employee, and on this sum he is entitled to receive through the trustee, when earned, dividends not exceeding 6 per cent. per annum uncumulatively and subject to certain limitations. These limitations, as set forth by Mr. Purves, secure the management fully against any usurpation of its control of the business, confirm its authority to employ

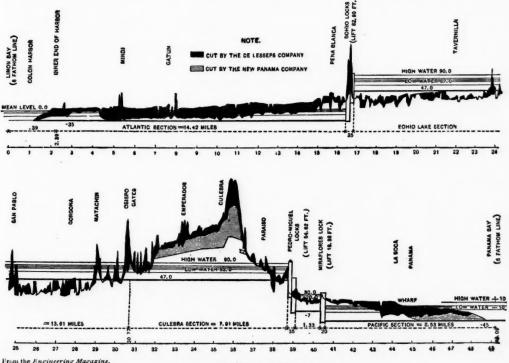
or discharge employees, and provide for its supervision of all other matters pertaining to the business.

Our space limitations do not permit of a more extended summarizing of Mr. Purves' plan, but for further details our readers are referred to the complete paper as it appears in the Annals for July.

THE PANAMA CANAL ROUTE.

HE passage by Congress of the so-called "Spooner substitute" for the Isthmian Canal bill, by the terms of which a canal is to be constructed under certain conditions by the Panama route rather than the Nicaraguan, lends an additional interest to Prof. William H. Burr's elaborate study of the Panama route, the first portion of which appears in the Popular Science Monthly for July. Professor Burr, it will be remembered, was one of the engineer members of the Isthmian Canal Commission, and is thoroughly familiar with all the materials relating to the Panama route that have been in the possession of the commission, as well as with all the special surveys and investigations made under the commission's authority during the past three

While it is generally understood that the line adopted by the canal commission for the purposes of its plans and estimates was the route selected by the Panama Canal Company, several features of that route, as described by Professor Burr, are not matters of general knowledge. The route as outlined by Professor Burr is as follows: "Starting from the six-fathom contour in the harbor of Colon, the line follows the low marshy ground adjoining the Bay of Limon to its intersection with the Mindi River; thence through the low ground continuing to Gatun, about six miles from Colon, where it first meets the Chagres River. From this point to Obispo the canal line follows practically the general course of the Chagres River, although at one point in the marshes below Bohio it is nearly two miles from the farthest bend in the river at a small place called Ahorca Lagarto. Bohio is about seventeen miles from the Atlantic terminus, and Obispo about thirty miles. At the the latter point the course of the Chagres River, passing up stream, lies to the northeast, while the general direction of the canal line is southeast toward Panama, the latter leaving the former at this location. The canal route follows up the general course of a small stream, called the Camacho, for



From the Engineering Magazine.

PROFILE OF THE PANAMA ROUTE.

a distance of nearly five miles, where the continental divide is found, and in which the great Culebra cut is located, about thirty-six miles from Colon and thirteen miles from the Panama terminus. After passing through the Culebra cut, the canal route follows the course of the Rio Grande River to its mouth at Panama Bay. The mouth of the Rio Grande, where the canal line is located, is about a mile and a half westerly of the city of Panama. The Rio Grande is a small, sluggish stream throughout the last six miles of its course, and for that distance the canal excavation would be made mostly in soft silt or mud."

HARBOR IMPROVEMENTS.

The commission considered the feasibility of a sea-level route with a tidal lock at the Panama end, and it was found that the approximate cost of completing the work on that plan would be about \$250,000,000, while the time required would probably be nearly or twice that needed for the construction of a canal with locks. The commission therefore adopted a project for a canal with locks. The commission projected a canal channel into the harbor of Colon which, with the construction of the harbor itself, was estimated to cost over \$8,000,000, while the annual cost of maintenance was placed at \$30,000. Regarding the habor at the Pacific end of the channel. Professor Burr says:

"The harbor of Panama, as it now exists, is a large area of water at the extreme northern limit of the bay, immediately adjacent to the city of Panama, protected from the south by the three islands of Perico, Naos, and Culebra. It has been called a roadstead. There is good anchorage for heavy-draft ships, but for the most part the water is shallow. With the commission's requirement of a minimum depth of water of thirty-five feet, a channel about four miles long from the mouth of the Rio Grande to the six-fathom line in Panama Bay must be excavated. This channel would have a bottom width of two hundred feet with side slopes of one on three where the material is soft. Considerable rock would have to be excavated in this channel. At 4.41 miles from the six-fathom line is located a wharf at the point called La Boca. A branch of the Panama Railroad Company runs to this wharf, and at the present time deep-draft ships lie up alongside of it, and take on and discharge cargo, as do the trains of the Panama Railroad Company. This wharf is a steel-framed structure, founded upon steel cylinders, carried down to bedrock by the pneumatic process. Its cost was about \$1,284,000. The total cost of this excavated channel, leading from Panama Harbor to the pier at La Boca, is estimated by the commission at \$1,464,513. As the harbor at Panama is considered an open road-stead, it requires no estimate for annual cost of maintenance."

THE DAM AT BOHIO.

The principal engineering feature of the route is found at Bohio, where there will be a great dam constructed across the Chagres River, forming Lake Bohio, the summit of the canal. This lake will have a superficial area during high water of about forty square miles. The water will be backed up to a point called Alhajuela, about twenty-five miles up the river from Bohio. For a distance of nearly fourteen miles, from Bohio to Obispo, the route of the canal would lie in this lake. Although the water would be from eighty to ninety feet deep at the dam, Professor Burr says that for several miles below Obispo it will be necessary to make some excavation along the general course of the Chagres in order to secure the minimum depth of thirty-five feet for the nayigable canal. The Bohio dam will raise the water surface of the canal from sea level in the Atlantic maritime section to an ordinary maximum of ninety feet above sea level. This total lift is divided into parts of forty-five feet each. There will therefore be a flight of two locks at Bohio.

FORMOSA UNDER JAPANESE RULE.

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TOT all Americans are aware that Japan, for the past seven years, has had to deal with conditions in her dependency of Formosa not unlike those which are now confronting the United States in the Philippines. Formosa was conceded to Japan as a result of the war with China in 1894-95. After the cession the island passed through a period of military government corresponding with our own administration in the Philippines; and after the military rule was ended a civil governor was appointed, who was made entirely responsible for the civil administration of the island. Thus far there have been in succession four governor-generals and three civil governors. At present, Baron Kodama is governor-general and Dr. Shimpei Goto civil governor of Formosa. Dr. Goto has visited the United States during the present summer, for the purpose of studying our institutions. During his visit he contributed an account of the Japanese administration of Formosa to the Independent of July 3. To this article we are indebted for the following facts:

As in the Philippines, the population of Formosa is made up of various racial elements. According to the statistics for 1899, the total number of natives in the island was 2,725,041;



DR. SHIMPEI GOTO.

less than 100,000 of these are aborigines. Chinese emigrants from the south of China or their descendants constitute a large proportion of the population. Thus far only about 33,000 Japanese have taken up their residence in the island, although this number does not include the troops stationed in the island. According to Dr. Goto, the Chinese in Formosa are only half-civilized, and while their customs and religious proclivities are similar to those of their countrymen in the southern provinces of China, few of the Chinese in Formosa are acquainted with Chinese charac. ters. One reason for the tardiness of the Japanese to migrate to the island is to be found in the unhealthful climate. But the sanitary measures adopted by the Japanese authorities have already worked wonders, and many of the disagreeable features of life in Formosa have been greatly modified or wholly eliminated. For instance, the number of mosquitoes, flies, and other noxious insects has been greatly decreased. The streets of some of the cities have been cleansed by drainage systems, and a good water supply has been secured by means of artesian wells. The percentage of sickness and deaths among the Japanese officials resident in Formosa has shown a great improvement since the first years of Japanese occupation. The decrease in the death rate has been more than 75 per cent.

EDUCATION.

The authorities have found it necessary to take vigorous measures to secure the prevailing use of

the Japanese language throughout the island, but at the same time they have felt the need of having Japanese officials conversant with the native tongue. A central language school was therefore established, for the double purpose of teaching the Japanese language to the natives and the native language to the Japanese. This institution is divided into a normal-school department and a language-school department, the former training Japanese students to serve as teachers in primary schools for native children, local language, and normal schools and primary schools for Japanese children. In the languageschool department the Japanese language is studied by the native students and the native language by the Japanese students, the students in both sections being trained with the object of fitting them for public service or for private occupations in Formosa. The educational work conducted under the government auspices is by no means confined to language study, but up to this time this appears to have been the branch of instruction to which chief attention has been devoted.

FINANCIAL POLICY.

More than three years ago Governor-General Kodama projected a remarkable programme for the execution of public undertakings, extending



BARON GENTARO KODAMA. Governor-General of Formosa.

over a period of twenty years, together with a project for establishing government monopolies of industries. These undertakings, as described by Dr. Goto, include (1) the laying of a trunk-line railway extending over the whole length of the island; (2) the surveying of lands; (3) the construction of harbors, and (4) the building of government offices and residences. . To meet the expenditures required for these works, the Formosan government was authorized to raise loans to the amount of 35,000,000 yen, of which the principal and interest was to be paid out of the revenues of the island. It is estimated that the railroad work alone will require 28,810,000 yen, the construction of the harbor of Kelung 2,000,000, the land-surveying 3,000,000, and the building of government offices and residences 1,200,000. It is believed that the railroad will be finished much within the ten years' time originally assigned to the work, and that it will have a remarkable effect in stimulating industries on the island. Revenues accruing from the part of the island now open to traffic are greater than they were expected to The completion of an accurate land survey will confirm rights over land, will make landed property secure, and will greatly facilitate transfers. This work, by the way, was undertaken by the Chinese governor some years ago, but without success. As to the projected harbor works at Kelung, this is only the beginning of improvements for that port which will involve the expenditure of tens of millions of yen. It is the intention of the government to make this the chief port of Formosa, and it is believed that the growing industry and commerce of the island justify all the expenditures that have been projected. In the erection of public buildings great care has been taken in regard to sanitary arrangements, and the structures already built or in process of completion will serve as models for the whole island.

GOVERNMENT MONOPOLIES.

With a view to the gradual abolition of the pernicious habit of opium smoking, the Japanese government has established a monopoly of the article in Formosa which yields an annual revenue at present of about 4,000,000 yen. Under the restrictions established by the government, only those who have been already poisoned by opium to such an extent that they are unable to abandon the habit of smoking without great pain are allowed, by special warrant of the government, to use it as a medicine. The formation of the habit is absolutely forbidden, or, in fact, its continuation in cases where poisoning has not advanced so far as to make abstention impossible. There is also a salt monopoly yielding

700,000 or 800,000 yen, and this commodity is now exported to Japan in considerable quantities. It is produced by permitting salt water to flow into fields, and then causing it to evaporate by the heat of the sun. Almost the whole supply of camphor of the world comes from Formosa. When Japan acquired Formosa a camphor monopoly was established, with a view to protecting the camphor trees, improving the methods of manufacturing, and putting the industry on a secure basis. The production is now regulated according to the demands of the world's market. The revenue yielded by the monopoly is now about 4,000,000 yen. The present governorgeneral has also formed a plan for eventually making the Formosa finances entirely independent of imperial aid. The imperial government began the administration of Formosa with a grant of nearly 6,900,000 yen, and this grant has been annually diminished until the present time. According to Baron Kodama's project, which was adopted by the Diet, the grant will be steadily decreased until it will entirely disappear in 1910.

The possibility of this gain of financial independence may be seen when we consider the recent remarkable increase of the revenue, -from 5,000,000 yen in 1897 to 14,000,000 yen at present, with the provability of an increase to 20,000,000 yen in two or three years, this increase being largely secured as a result of the operation of the monopolies, the adjustment of the land tax, and other financial reforms. As the total expenditure incurred by Japan in connection with Formosa up to the end of the last fiscal year, March 31, 1901, amounted to 150,-000,000 yen, including the military expenses, while in the same period the revenue amounted to only 40,000,000 yen, the financial burden to be charged to Formosa may be reckoned as 110,000,000 yen in all. As the annual revenue derived from Formosa is now from 14,000,000 to 20,000,000 yen, it may be said, as Dr. Goto points out, that the capital invested by the imperial government is bearing interest at the rate of 15 to 20 per cent. The import of Japanese commodities into Formosa is now about 15,-000,000 yen. Supposing the profit of this trade to be at the rate of 20 per cent., the annual gain of Japan is about 3,000,000 yen, which nearly covers the present amount of the grant which the Formosan government receives from the imperial government.

RESOURCES OF THE ISLAND.

Among the more important products of Formosa named by Dr. Goto are tea, rice, sugar, hemp and flax, indigo, paper, silk, minerals, cattle, and marine produce. Dr. Goto predicts that

the production of sugar will be greatly increased within a few years. As to the mineral wealth of the island, gold, sulphur, coal, and petroleum are found there in considerable quantities, the yearly output of gold being about 1,000,000 yen at the present time. All in all, Dr. Goto draws a very favorable picture of Formosan resources, and seems to fully justify his assertion that this dependency, far from being a financial burden to the home government, is really a valuable investment.

THE TRANSVAAL MINES.

SINCE the close of hostilities in South Africa, attention is again concentrated on the mining possibilities of the Rand. The Engineering Magazine for July opens with an article by the famous mining expert, Mr. John Hays Hammond. After giving a general summary of the beginnings and development of the mines, he reviews the probable benefit of the change of government for mine owners. The amount of ore mined in 1887 was 23,000 ounces; in 1898, 4,295,609 ounces, valued at £15,141,376.

THE WATER SUPPLY.

One of the chief difficulties to be contended with is the poor supply of water, which at present is obtained by local storage of rain water,—not a very satisfactory arrangement. Within twenty or twenty-five miles of Johannesburg there are, however, other sources of water supply which will probably be utilized. Of the maps prepared Mr. Hammond says:

"Great attention is given to the preparation of maps of the underground workings, geological sections, and plans upon which assays are plotted. In these respects the Rand practice is far ahead of that of any other country with which I am familiar."

AMERICANS FOR RESPONSIBLE POSITIONS.

The labor question is always a difficult one. Mr. Hammond says:

"Reference has already been made to the labor question, in statistics of the relative number of whites and blacks employed. The white workmen are predominantly British, though many of the important members of technical staffs are Americans; the mine and mill foremen are usually either Americans, or British subjects who have had mining experience in America. This labor is generally below the American standard, but is rapidly improving. Manual workers on the surface and all miners except those running machine drills, are blacks, and the quality of the black labor is very poor, especially on first arriving at the mines."

TRANSPORT DIFFICULTIES.

Mr. Hammond looks for a reduction in the present excessive railway rates. He says:

"Generally speaking, the cost of the principal machinery, erected on the ground, will be two and one-half times its home cost. In respect of labor, cost of dynamite, and charges for railway transport, marked improvement is confidently to be expected from the change of governmental conditions."

LAWS AND MONOPOLIES.

Mr. Hammond speaks well of the Transvaal

"The mining laws of the Transvaal are most excellent in character, and while the claims cover every square foot of land for an area of nearly 40 miles long by from 2 to 3 miles wide, there have been practically no conflicts over extra-lateral rights.

"Notwithstanding the change in the political status of the Transvaal which will follow the recently concluded peace and final establishment of British rule, it may be confidently assumed that the main features of the mining law of the South African Republic will be retained, and certain oppressive features of monopolies, etc., bearing with special weight on the mining industry, will be abolished. The dynamite monopoly was one that bore most heavily on the mining industry: and, according to the reports of the state mining engineer, explosives, including fuse and detonators, amounted to nearly 10 per cent. of the total working costs of the mines.

A FEW FORECASTS.

"It is estimated that for every mile in length along the course of the reefs, down to a vertical depth of 1,000 feet for the dip of the reefs, gold to the value of about £10,000,000 will be extracted. This is a conservative estimate,—at least as applied to the central section of the Rand. If we assume these conditions to obtain to a depth of 6,000 feet vertically, we have the enormous sum of £60,000,000 for each mile in length. It is not unreasonable to suppose that these conditions will be maintained along most of the central section,—say, for a distance of ten miles,—in which case we would have an auriferous area, within practicable mining depths, containing upward of £600,000,000,000 value of gold."

"If," says Mr. Hammond, "I were called upon to express my opinion, I would estimate the future duration of profitable operations on a large scale in the district at less, rather than more, than twenty-five years. I believe that, as the result of economic reforms, there will be an ultimate saving of 6s. per ton of ore treated."

PROFESSOR HEILPRIN ON MONT PELÉE.

HERE recently returned from Martinique a party of scientists, artists, and newspaper men, who had hastened to the site of St. Pierre almost as soon as the news of the catastrophe was made known. One of these was Prof. Angelo Heilprin, who has for twenty years been identified with the scientific institutions of Philadelphia. Professor Heilprin writes in the August McClure's of his observation on Mont Pelée, and of the deductions he has drawn from these observations as to the original cause of the great

volcanic upheaval.

Professor Heilprin was the first man to ascend the volcano after the great catastrophe. On May 31, he went up the crater to an altitude of about 4,000 feet. He found that the old crater had not been blown out, as was reported. The next day Professor Heilprin made another ascent to the same crater, accompanied by Messrs. Kennan, Jaccaci, and the artist George Varian, who contributes the pictures which illustrate this article. The party arrived at an elevation of 4,025 feet. They found the temperature to be, two or three inches below the surface, 124° to 130°, and at a somewhat greater depth 162°. Puffs of steam were issuing from a number of vents, and from beneath great bowlder masses, whose heated surfaces were scarred with sulphur blotches.

THE VIEW INTO THE CRATER.

"We waited patiently for a lifting of the clouds, and it came at last. A sudden gust cleared the summit, and sunlight illuminated the near horizon. We dashed to the line above which welled out the huge steam cloud of the volcano, and in a few instants stood upon the rim of the giant rift in whose interior the world

was being re-made in miniature.

"We were four feet, perhaps less, from a point whence a plummet could be dropped into the seething furnace. Momentary flashes of light permitted us to peer deep into the tempest-tossed caldron, but at no time could we see its floor, for over it rolled the vapors that rose out to mountain heights. Opposite us, at a distance of perhaps 200 feet or more, across the thin steam vapor, trembled the walls of the other face of the crater. Halfway between rose the central core of the burned-out cinder masses, topped by enormous white rocks, whose brilliant incandescence flashed out the beacon-lights which were observed from the sea some days after the fatal 8th, and even at our later day illumined the night-crown of the volcano with a glow of fire. From the interior came deep rumbling detonations, the clinking of falling and sliding cinders, the hissing of the emerging steam, and other

sounds which were too feebly defined to be described. We felt no inconvenience from either

gas or steam.

"We found that we were standing on an overhang, and therefore dared not tarry beyond the time needed to make observations. I attempted to locate the axis of the vent as nearly as the direction of its largely obscured walls and the position of the basin of Lac des Palmistes permitted. I found it to be N.-S., slightly S. W. The magnetic needle, which the day before showed a marked deflection, was nearly normal. The form of the crater is that of a caldron, pitching steeply downward toward the Caribbean, and opening in a direction a little west of the line to St. Pierre. At no time could we positively ascertain the extreme boundaries. Its length must have been 500 feet; it may have been much There can be no question that at the downward side of the crater the rift traverses the position of the narrow rift known as the Fente, or the Terre Fendue, which had been a feature of the mountain since the eruption of 1851, and perhaps existed long before that event.

"Any statement regarding the depth of the crater must for the time remain conjectural. I should say that it could hardly be less than from 200 to 250 feet; it might be very much more."

WHAT CAUSED THE ERUPTION OF MAY 8?

Professor Heilprin says that the death-dealing eruption of May 8 was from the lower crater. He proves that the description of the catastrophe which spoke of moving sheets of flame were er-Instead, there was a luminous, or incandescent, cloud which may easily in that terrible time have given the impression of flame.

This glowing cloud, Professor Heilprin says, was composed of one of the heavier carbonic gases brought under pressure to a condition of extreme incandescence "and whose liberation in contact with the oxygen in the atmosphere, assisted by electric discharges, wrought this explosion, or series of explosions, that developed the catastrophe."

The great cloud of incandescent vapor undoubtedly produced a tornado, and Professor Heilprin found evidence of storm paths lying across the city's ruins. He also considers it certain that electric explosions had their share in

the phenomena.

THE ORIGIN OF THE CARBONIC GAS.

"To the inquiry as to what was the source of this carbon gas, -to my mind the main factor of the catastrophe, -the geologist points to those vast bituminous deposits, like those of Venezuela and the island of Trinidad, which lie but little out

of the line of the connected series of volcanoes, of which the Soufrière of St. Vincent and Pelée of Martinique are a part. He also points to the limestone deposits, with their enormous masses of locked-up carbon, forming the foundation upon which these same volcanoes are implanted, which indicate a source of energy far greater than was required for the catastrophe of Pelée. Though no one could have foretold the cataclysm long in advance of its coming, the episode, except in its magnitude and terrible consequences, is no surprise to the geologist, who knows this region to be in an area of extreme weakness in the earth's This region of terrestrial instability includes the greater part of the Caribbean and Gulf basins, and defines in its eastern contour the line of disappearance and breakage of the South American Andes, whose sunken crest is the pediment of the lesser Antilles. What great disturbances, if any, have taken place in the sea bottom as the result of the recent occurrences is a question that will take time to determine; but there is evidence already that some change has taken place west of Martinique, between the depth of 1,500 and 2,000 fathoms. The eruptions of Colima in Mexico, the earthquakes that so recently destroyed the towns of Chilpancingo in Mexico and Quetzaltenango in Guatemala, the minor disturbances in Nicaragua, are but phases of the phenomena which culminated so disastrously in the explosions of the Soufrière of St. Vincent and Mont Pelée of Martinique."

WHAT CAUSED THE DEATHS AT ST. PIERRE?

PORTUNATELY for the cause of science, several unusually competent investigators were able to visit Martinique and St. Vincent before the volcanic eruptions of May had ceased, and their observations have already been reported in detail. The full report of the representatives of the National Geographic Society appears in the July number of the National Geographic Magazine. This report, which was prepared by Dr. Robert T. Hill, of the United States Geological Survey, is interesting not only as a presentation of facts regarding the great catastrophe, but also for the theories that it suggests to account for the enormous fatality at St. Pierre.

Dr. Hill states two such theories, one or the other of which may ultimately be adopted:

··1. The heat-blast theory. This hypothesis assumed that the lapilli, gases, and steam of the ejected cloud were sufficiently hot to have inflamed the city and destroyed the people by singeing, suffocation, and asphyxiation. It does not account for the forces exerted radially and horizontally, nor the flame.

"2. The aërial-explosion theory. The explosion of gases within the erupted cloud after their projection into the air would account for all

the phenomena observed.

"The aërial explosion, if it occurred, was most probably a combustible gas, but science is still unable to state its nature. The discussion of explosive gases involves a line of scientific specialization which the writer does not possess; but as sudden and mysterious as was the great secret, it has left its traces and clues which the detectives of science will follow up. Metal surfaces of objects in the ruins will be examined and analyzed for traces of sulphur and chlorides. The deposits from the numerous steaming fumaroles are already within the chemical laboratory. Even the ash and rocks of the island will be submitted to minute investigation.

"And then there were those frightful lightning bolts! What of them and their igniting

power?"

THOUSANDS KILLED BY STEAM AND DUST.

Prof. Israel C. Russell, another geologist who represented the Geographic Society in Martinique, says regarding the nature of the blast which swept over St. Pierre from Mont Pelée:

"It has been stated in the newspapers that the inhabitants of St. Pierre were asphyxiated by noxious gases or killed by a gas explosion. own observations and the best interpretation I can place upon the testimony of surviving witnesses favors the opinion that the general cause of death was a blast of steam charged with hot dust. Gases, probably in part inflammable, were no doubt present, as the odor of sulphurous acid was perceptible at the time of my visit; but the part that such gases played was seemingly secondary. In order to be able to judge of the conditions where everything was destroyed, it is necessary to learn what took place on the outskirts of the storm. The people on the borders of the devastated area who escaped were in some instances injured, and the injuries were inflicted by hot dust, which on touching the skin adhered and burned. These burns resemble scalds, and destroyed only the epidermis. In several such instances the hair on the burned portions was not destroyed, and where the bodies of the sufferers were protected by even light clothing they were uninjured.

"Had the dust which struck the injured people been somewhat hotter, their clothing would have been ignited; and if they had inhaled the hot dust, death would have been almost instantaneous. The condition of the dead in St. Pierre favors the conclusion that this deduction shows what took place there. While the inhalation of

steam charged with burning hot dust may seemingly be accepted as the principal cause of death in the stricken city, it must be admitted that many persons were no doubt killed by falling

walls, by nervous shock, etc.

"The blasts which swept St. Pierre on the morning of May 8, and again on May 20, passed through the city with hurricane force. This is demonstrated by the manner in which great trees were uprooted, strong masonry walls thrown down, the lighthouse overturned, etc. direction in which all these objects were swept was a little west of south, or directly away from Mont Pelée. The most conspicuous evidence of the strength of the blast which wrought the mechanical destruction is furnished by a statue of the Blessed Virgin, referred to above. statue,-composed, I understand, of iron, and measuring over 11 feet in height and nearly 10 feet in circumference at the shoulders, and weighing several tons, -was swept from its pedestal and carried southward about 45 feet. All the evidence collected in this connection cannot here be presented, but it indicates that the blast which wrought the havoc referred to passed over the city with full hurricane force."

PRIZE CORONATION ODES.

HE Good Words comes out this July very much enlarged in size and greatly elated in spirit at the response to its coronation ode competition. Prizes of £50, £15, and £10 were offered last Christmas. The final award was given by Stopford Brook, Edmund Gosse, and William Canton. Odes were received from 1,084 competitors, and from almost every part of the empire. The editor is almost swept off his feet by the unexpected number and widely distributed origins of these odes. "The young loyalty has come to its manhood." The empire has found voice as a unit.

"To read them, poem after poem, from all parts of the empire, is to become conscious of an imperial force the like of which history holds no record and the chronicles of the nations show no trace. Turning over ode after ode the beautiful strains of harmonious patriotism blend into a single stately imperial anthem until the reader, pausing as it were to listen, finds almost overpowering the glorious diapason of the song. . . . Very interesting, indeed, is the mingling of races and creeds, when side by side, upon a table in London, lie some eleven hundred odes, written by Brahmin and Mohammedan and Buddhist and native Christians, -negroes of the West, from the Leeward Isles and the Windward, natives of the East, Indian, Burmese and Cinghalese,-

Protestant, Roman Catholic, Dissenter, Quaker. and Jew. Their pens, some of them, would have run more readily in Tamil or Telugu, Pushtu or Persian or Arabic, but they are all in the language of the ruling race, and cramped of course though they are, they are all of them real and living in thought and sentiment. Of course, the majority of the odes are by writers of our own race. . . . Never have poets sung with such a voice before. Knowledge of the splendid responsibilities of empire with boundaries that encompass the world,-and vexed along all their length by the uncharitableness of envious neighbors or the turbulence of tribes that cannot yet understand,—give dignity to the singers and noble form to their song."

The first prize falls to Lauchlan MacLean Watt, B.D., minister of Alloa, Scotland; the second to Rev. S. Cornish Watkins, Kingston, Herefordshire; the third is divided between Lucy Eveline Smith, of Dunedin, New Zealand, and F. H. Wood, M.A., Bromley Park, Kent. Perhaps as characterful as any is the passage in Mr. Watt's Ode on the Union Jack:

Ah, 'tis no empty fluttering of a dream, Our flag's proud gleam : Many and tired the fingers that have sewn it, Seam by seam, Staining it with life's crimson, and the blue Of northern skies and seas, till winds have blown it Wider than all their wonder and their dream.

Thin red lines of pulsing lives were the thread of it, Pulsing lives that bled away for its sake beneath the spread of it.

Till the wide seas knew it, And the winds of the wide world blew it, And the host of England followed the flag till earth trembled under the tread of it.

Up with it into the sky. Let it blow abroad, let its message fly Like the gray gull, over the deep, As glad and free.

The Good Words is so pleased with the success of this experiment as to offer similar prizes for the three best songs of the empire, to be adjudged next Christmas.

"LORD SALISBURY AS A SAINT."

SUCH is the inscription beneath a picture of statuary in Mr. F. D. H. statuary in Mr. F. D. How's sixth paper on Lord Salisbury, in Good Words. It might fitly head the entire article. "The curious and interesting statue is to be seen in the sculpture gallery of the beautiful reredos of the Chapel of All Souls' College, Oxford. The reredos was erected about forty-two years ago, at the time that Lord Salisbury had just been elected to a fellowship of all Souls', and the artist, having determined to give his saints the faces of actual

living people rather than idealized features, chose Lord Salisbury's face as his type of a Christian warrior." Mr. How exclaims against the charge of extreme partisanship on the ritualistic

side:

"No greater mistake could be made. Lord Salisbury is a high churchman, but of the most wide-minded and charitable kind. He is no friend to the advanced school of modern ritualism, neither does he fail to appreciate at its full value the piety and learning of 'Evangelicals' with whom he may not be in all matters in perfect sympathy. It is only necessary to notice the advice that he has given to the crown as to the appointments to bishoprics to be assured of the impartiality and wisdom of his views."

A RECORD BISHOP-MAKER.

And then Mr. How recalls the extraordinary fact that as prime minister Lord Salisbury has been concerned in the appointment of thirty-seven bishops! This surely establishes something like a record in bishop-making. Yet Lord Salisbury used to say there were few whom he considered eligible for the episcopal bench, and few whom the Queen considered eligible, but the number whom both he and Her Majesty thought eligible was very small indeed.

SUNDAY AT HATFIELD.

After describing the chapel in Hatfield Hall,

Mr. How proceeds:

"The services in this chapel include daily morning prayer at 9:30 (the general breakfast hour being 10); and on Sundays an early celebration at 9:15, with afternoon service at 3:30. These services are taken by one of the curates at the parish church; but when there is no one staying at Hatfield, the morning service on Sundays is given up, Lord Salisbury and Lady Gwendolen Cecil coming to the church instead. These arrangements are all the easier to make, as the rectory of Hatfield is held by Lord William Cecil, which recalls the fact that the rectory of Hawarden is held by the son of the late Mr. Gladstone, the rival statesmen each having had the happiness of being ministered to by one of their sons. Another coincidence is the circumstance that both rectories are of exceptional value."

A portrait of the rector of Hatfield has a strange resemblance to the bishops of Worcester and Rochester. Mr. How has shown "the thorough attachment of Lord Salisbury to the

Church ":

"His love for her has always been sincere and unostentatious. He has made few professions, he has not taken prominent part in her services except as a regular worshiper, but the one thing which has had the power to rouse him to an outburst of indignation has been an attack upon her by her so-called friends."

SAINT AND SCIENTIST IN ONE.

It is significant that this devout churchman and maker of bishops has been at the same time and in this critical age a noted man of science:

"What is sometimes called 'Lord Salisbury's den,' consists of a laboratory, a dressing room, and a bathroom on the ground floor. Though not nearly so much used of late years, there yet remains plenty of evidence in the paraphernalia of the former of the industry with which at one time its occupant pursued his scientific researches. It has already been stated that Lord Salisbury is a geologist of the first rank. He has also given time to photography, and to the practical study of electricity; the splendid electric lighting at Hatfield House having been carried out under his direction."

HIS PERSONAL HABITS.

Mr. How brings to a close in the July Good Words his valuable series of sketches of the veteran premier. He touches on several personal characteristics. He first mentions Lord Salis-

bury's calm, and next his good health:

"Always an advocate of regular exercise, he still tricycles every morning when the weather permits, and at 8 o'clock is to be often seen thus wheeling along the London streets before the traffic of the day has assumed formidable proportions. Some years ago he was a tennis player of some repute."

His "mental aloofness" comes in for frequent

comment:

"Trifles are not allowed to disturb his reveries. An eye-witness described how she watched him walking up and down the platform at King's Cross, while the rug which he carried trailed along the dusty pavement. At last a man approached and said, 'I beg your pardon, sir, but your rug is trailing on the ground.' 'Ah!' said Lord Salisbury, with a smile, 'it generally does.' This little story forcibly reminds one of the occasion when Dean Stanley, who was staying away from home, came down to dinner with his collar hanging down attached by one button only. His hostess went up to him, and gently pointed out the fact. 'Do you object?' said Dean Stanley. 'Oh, no!' was the only possible reply. said the dean, 'no more do I!'

"In addition to this 'mental aloofness,' as it has been called, Lord Salisbury is extremely short-sighted, and is also one of the shyest of men. When traveling in a train he buries himself instantly in a book,—probably a novel, for he is a great reader of this class of literature, and spends much of his spare time when indoors in this manner. Music and art have few attractions for him. He has, indeed, been known to express his inability properly to appreciate the

compositions of Wagner!

"When he is at work he is, however, a different man. He is phenomenally rapid, not only in his grasp of a subject, but also in his method of getting through his business. He writes far more letters himself than is usual for a man in his position, although he still (since, that is, he has resigned the Foreign Secretaryship) retains the services of two private secretaries."

His relation to boys mentioned in the following paragraph will come as a pleasant surprise

to many:

"Of Lord Salisbury's attachment to his family it is scarcely fitting to speak during his lifetime, but it is well known that it is intense. His fondness of children is perhaps less notorious, but is none the less true. He is especially 'jolly' with boys. There is one tiny bit of evidence in Hatfield House that the young ones are not forgotten, for a miniature children's billiard-table occupies a prominent position in the cloisters."

These sketches will be read with intense interest by men and women of all political parties, and will help to deepen the personal regard en-

tertained for the venerable statesman.

DOES BRITAIN STARVE HER BLUEJACKETS?

THE question of food for the men who man her fighting ships is becoming a burning one in England. Mr. Arnold White, after making a special investigation in Germany, states in the National Review for July that "a sufficiency of well-cooked, plain, good food, equal to their necessities, is given to the bluejackets in the German, American, and French navies."

But, it will be said, was not the whole subject inquired into? It was, and certain recommendations were made, which will not be carried out until some time next year. Mr. White says:

"The committee were desired to inquire into the sufficiency of the present ration. The ration was pronounced insufficient. They were desired to inquire into the question of meal hours. It was recommended that there should be five recognized meal hours instead of three, as at present, and that the time allowed for these five meals should be three hours thirty-five minutes instead of two hours thirty minutes allowed for the three meals at present. Under the present system no food is served out by the state to the British bluejacket after 4.15 p.m. If he feels hungry between 4.45 p.m. and his cocoa-time

next morning, he is compelled to buy what he wants at the canteen and stint his wife or himself of other things."

"The private outlay of the seaman, stoker, and marine is not less than 6d. a day, and it does not seem that this aspect of the problem has been taken into consideration by the Rations Committee. Surely every possible influence should be brought to bear on Parliament and on public opinion to increase the amount due from the country to the navy for the leveling up and improving of its rations."

BRITISH AND GERMAN NAVIES COMPARED.

THE English reviews are publishing comparisons of the British with the German navy which are by no means flattering to the former. Herr Ernst Teja Meyer's "Los von England," a translation of which appears in the Contemporary for July, declares that, "apart from the number of ships, England's navy will find a superior enemy in the marine of every great power which is abundantly provided with all that gives force at sea."

THE BRITISH FLEET "MADE IN GERMANY."

Herr Meyer passes in review the whole British fleet, and its bases, the coaling stations, etc. He maintains that in every respect the establishment, when weighed in the balances, is found wanting. In everything but numbers England's navy is inferior to those of other nations, and, Herr Meyer would have us believe, immeasurably inferior to that of Germany. England cannot build her ships without buying materials from Germany. The guns and shells are bought from Krupp and Erhardt. Steel for English bayonets comes from Solingen, brown powder from Westphalia, and new boilers for the ships are to be supplied by German workshops. It is also recommended that armor plates should be bought from Krupp. The whole British navy, so far as there is any good in it, according to Herr Meyer, will soon have to be labeled "Made in Germany," while Germany, for her part, builds her ships from her own resources in her own shipyards, with her own workmen, and is independent of England and every other power.

A MERE PLAYTHING.

Not only are the British ships inferior in the weight of broadside and in tactic value to the German ships, but so many accidents and mutinies take place on British vessels as to reveal a state of things which recalls the sorry and deplorable condition of the Spanish navy at the outbreak of the war with the United States.

The British fleet is little more than a national plaything. Instead of naval maneuvers and squadron practice, there are holiday cruises from port to port, in which everything is subordinated to regattas and banquets. Herr Meyer maintains that the British naval officer would come out of action just as hopelessly discredited as his military brother.

"To most officers in the British navy the service is but a business. They all suffer from their hereditary complaint,—national pride, together with an inordinate self-conceit, an incredibly boorish ignorance, and a scorn of all foreigners."

BRITISH SAILORS MUTINOUS.

The bluejackets are, Herr Meyer admits, better than the "mercenary blackguards in red or in khaki" who are recruited for the army. But it would be almost an insult to compare them with German sailors, for "they lack, above all, that deep moral seriousness with which our bluejackets win hearts the world over; that unselfish devotion; that firm, I might say pious, sense of duty." The men are discontented, and rightly so. On the one hand, they are treated arrogantly and offensively; on the other hand, they are neglected. The English fleet is the only one in the world in which serious mutinies occur.

But Herr Meyer says that on the Majestic the entire crew rose because shore-leave was refused it; and in the flagship Barfleur the crews mutinied because they got nothing out of Peking plunder. Whether the men are bad or good, there are not half enough of them. The question of personnel is entirely unsolved. Therefore, Herr Meyer concludes that the navy of England is just as little prepared for hostilities as the army, and that it will fail just as much, though it is certainly incomparably better than "those hordes which despise everything most needed for the welfare of a world power and a civilized state. The midshipmen should prove themselves strategic geniuses."

So says Herr Meyer, and he concludes by declaring that the English will not listen. They deride and despise plain lessons and experiences of history; the coming collapse in a war with a great European power will at last and forever demolish the old boast, "Britannia rules the waves."

A British Estimate of the German Navy.

Mr. Archibald S. Hurd contributes to the Nineteenth Century for July a very good article entitled "The Kaiser's Fleet." His study is necessarily largely comparative, for while he writes of the German navy he has always the British navy in his eye. The German navy bill

of 1900, which authorized an expenditure of \$365,000,000 on new men-of-war and \$65,000,-000 on dockvards, in which they can be prepared, contrasts very favorably with the British Naval Defense Act, inasmuch as the German measure takes account of all the needs of the fleet which it is to create. It makes provision for every detail of the ships down to the last rivet, while the extension of the organization of the great naval ports will proceed pari passu with the construction of the men-of-war. In 1920 the German navy will consist of 38 thoroughly modern battleships and 17 older reserve battleships, making 55 in all. Behind these battleships there will be 52 cruisers. In that year the British navy will only be three battleships stronger than that of Germany. Germany will, therefore, be the second greatest naval power in the world, and her battle squadrons will exceed in value such ships as England will be able to allocate to the defense of the near seas. The preamble of the navy bill shows that the purpose of the German fleet is to be strong enough to cope with that of Great Britain.

THE GERMAN FLEET UNDER INSPECTION.

Mr. Hurd speaks very highly concerning the efficiency of the fleet and the inspiration which it receives from the Kaiser. During the visit of Prince Henry to Ireland, Mr. Hurd had an opportunity of seeing the German ships at sea. He says that their color is the nearest approach to invisibility which can be obtained under the usual conditions. The painting of the ships is provided for out of the national funds, whereas in the British navy much of the expense falls upon the officers. One feature of the German ships is that there is no wood to be holystoned, and no brasswork to be polished by the crews. From end to end of the ships there is no gleam from a square inch of metalwork, brass, or steel. The weather decks are laid with a light reddish colored cement, which can be cleansed easily by the turning on of a hose. The cement will not splinter or ignite under gunfire, and nothing can look smarter than this hard and even material. There are very few wooden fittings, and though the insides of the cabins are made of wood, these could be cleared away in a few hours before going into action. The comfort of the crews is considered more than in British ships. The vessels are ventilated mechanically in hot weather, and heated in cold weather by pipes that run everywhere. There are baths for the officers, and for the men numerous hand-basins with water laid on in comfortable airy spaces. The food is good, is supplied in excellent quality and in ample quantity. The men have a different diet every day, and enjoy their meals; nor do they need to supplement their rations at the canteen out of their own pockets.

"In summary the German navy reveals some admirable points. It is a force which is hampered by few traditions. It exists with one object only,—to fight and to win. It may be that it has glaring faults; we may be sure that it is not perfect. Its seamanship certainly is not yet as high as that of the British fleet, and probably other holes could be picked in its training; but the fact remains that it is trained with serious purpose, that all smartness for mere smartness' sake is swept away, and among the sea forces of the world it marks in several important particulars the highest state of efficiency yet attained."

THE CASE AGAINST BRITISH PROTECTION.

THERE is a characteristic free-trade article by M. Yves Guyot in the Contemporary Review for July. M. Guyot, of course, is a free-trader as regards all countries, but he is in particular convinced that the continuance of the free-trade policy is an essential for England.

He begins his paper by pointing out that this is not the first time there has been a scare over British trade. A book on "The Decadence of England" was published in 1851, on the eve of a development of prosperity of which the most optimistic could not have dreamed. Englishmen living in a free-trade country are so used to its blessings that they do not notice them. Much of the protectionist advocacy is based upon the fallacious doctrine of the balance of trade. In the past the clear-sighted policy of Englishmen was adjusted to the progress of industry, while the political economy of the Continent aimed at annihilating it.

The protectionist nations are guilty of a monstrous self-contradiction when they establish telegraph lines, build railways, and subsidize ships, and at the same time neutralize this machinery by measures designed to prevent the entry of foreign goods. The logical protectionist must regret the good old times, when six or seven hundred thousand American Indians lived where seventy-six million inhabitants now dwell in peace and activity. The protectionists complain that the Americans are making themselves selfsufficing economically. But the Indians were still more self-sufficing, yet England had no trade with them. English protectionists cannot wish to close English ports against foreign raw material.

The example of the United States is an argument in favor of free trade. Among the nations in an advanced stage of evolution it forms a group of nearly eighty millions of individuals

who are not isolated in compartments by customhouse barriers. It is not the tariffs that have built up American industries,—they have only served the trusts; and in lessening the power of purchase of a portion of the Americans they have only impeded their rise instead of favoring it.

M. Guyot gives some remarkable figures to show the effect of state interference upon the price of food. In Austria-Hungary, export sugar is worth 21 crowns at Trieste, and sugar for home consumption 84 crowns at Prague. In France, the French consumer pays for 100 kilos of sugar more than 65 francs, 36 of which go into the treasury in order to promote the production of more sugar. M. des Essars has made a comparison between the retail prices in London and in Paris of forty-six articles of grocery. The total of the French prices came to 109.95, that of the English only to 89.09.

SPEED RECORDS ON AMERICAN RAILROADS.

TATEMENTS that American express trains have run at the rate of 75, 100, or even 120 miles an hour have been repeatedly circulated in Europe, and in Germany the state railway management has been severely criticised for its failure to equal these alleged records of speed. Writers in the German periodicals, on the other hand, have challenged the accuracy of the statements, and, in some instances, have convicted their authors of gross exaggeration of the facts. The discussion has at least shown the lack of well-attested records of such performances. In the Journal of Political Economy for June, Mr. George G. Tunell analyzes a recent attempt in the Archiv für Eisenbahnwesen, an official publication of the Prussian ministry of public works, to disparage the claims of American railroads as to the speed of trains.

Whether or not the Prussian authority successfully impeached the value of the records in dispute is a question of minor importance. Mr. Tunell is himself skeptical as to the accuracy of the extreme records quoted. He would not, he says, accept any statement of speed in excess of 85 miles per hour over level track, unless it was satisfactorily vouched for. This admission indicates the writer's cautious habit. The significant passages in his article are his statements regarding speed records which he regards as satisfactorily attested. The most recent instance cited by him is the following:

HIGH SPEED ON A WESTERN ROAD.

"During April and May of the present year (1902) some tests were made on the Chicago & North-Western Railway to ascertain the speed

between stations of their fast mail trains running between Chicago and Council Bluffs. The tests were made by Mr. Robert Quayle, the superintendent of motive power, who was assisted by Mr. Percy H. Batten and Mr. Horace H. Newsom, both of whom have had considerable experience in taking records. The speed recorder used was carefully adjusted and tested in the shops, and, after being placed on the engines, was checked with a stop-watch over stretches of track that had previously been carefully measured. On many occasions a speed of 75 or more miles an hour was recorded, and on one trip a speed of 82, on another a speed of 86, and on another a speed of 89 miles per hour was attained and held for a short distance.

"On April 28, train No. 10, between Carroll and Boone, in Iowa, ran six miles, five of which were consecutive, at a speed of 76 or more miles an hour, and for one-half of a mile maintained a speed of 82 miles per hour. The speed over the five-mile stretch was as follows for the successive miles: 76, 78, 8.15 (.5 of this mile being at 82), 78 and 76. On May 1 the record of April 28 was surpassed, 10.5 miles, 7.5 of which were consecutive, being run at a speed of 75 or more miles per hour. On this run a speed of 86 miles per hour was attained, but was held only for a very short distance, scarcely one quarter of a mile. The speed over the 7.5-mile stretch was at the rate of the following miles per hour for the successive miles or parts thereof, 75 (for .5 of a mile), 77, 78, 81, 84 (for 1.3 miles), 86 (for almost .25 of a mile), 83 (for .5 of a mile), 80, and 77.5. On May 10, the record of May 1 was surpassed by train No. 9. Of the 202 miles between Clinton and Boone, 82.5 were covered at a speed exceeding 70 miles per hour, 13.5 at a speed exceeding 80 miles per hour, and 4 miles at a speed exceeding 85 miles per hour, a speed of 89 miles per hour being reached and held for about one-fourth of a mile between the stations of Mt. Vernon and Cedar Rapids."

These runs were made with four cars, by locomotives having 19 by 26 inch cylinders, 80-inch driving wheels, and a steam pressure of 190 pounds, the total weight of each engine being approximately 133,800 pounds.

THE "LAKE SHORE" RECORD OF 1895.

Mr. Tunell also refers to the famous run made by the special train of Dr. W. Seward Webb over the Lake Shore & Michigan Southern Railway on October 24, 1895. The official timekeepers of this run were Mr. H. P. Robinson, editor of the Railway Age, and Mr. Willard A. Smith, sometime chief of the transportation department at the Chicago World's Fair. Noteworthy records made on this run were as follows:

A distance of 510.1 miles at 65.07 miles an hour.
A distance of 181.5 miles at 66.68 miles an hour.
A distance of 85 miles at 72.92 miles an hour.
A distance of 71 miles at 72.92 miles an hour.
A distance of 59 miles at 76.08 miles an hour.
A distance of 42 miles at 76.09 miles an hour.
A distance of 43 miles at 79.04 miles an hour.
A distance of 33 miles at 80.07 miles an hour.
A distance of 8 miles at 85.44 miles an hour.

The train was composed of two heavy Wagner parlor cars, each weighing 92,500 pounds, and Dr. Webb's private car Elsmere, which alone weighs 119,500 pounds. All the engines used in this relay race were built by the Brooks Locomotive Works, after designs furnished by Mr. George W. Stevens, of the Lake Shore Railway. The first four engines, which drew the train as far as Erie, were of the American type, or eight wheelers, comparatively light, but built for fast running. These engines weighed only 52 tons, had 17 by 24 inch cylinders, and 72-inch driving wheels. The last engine was of a different type, being a ten-wheeler, with three pairs of coupled drivers and a four-wheeled swiveling truck. It weighed 56.5 tons, its cylinders being of the same size as those of the other engines. driving wheels were only 68 inches in diameter.

FREIGHT RATES ON ARGENTINE WHEAT.

I T was only a few years ago that the Argentine Republic gained recognition as a serious competitor with the United States in the supply of wheat for European consumption. The fact that among all the transoceanic sources of wheat supply for western Europe Argentina now ranks second only to the United States has attracted the attention of statisticians, and efforts have been made to ascertain the causes of this rapid and unheralded development.

The cost of transportation is, of course, one of the most important elements in the situation, but heretofore there has been no serious attempt to compare the freight rates from the farms of Argentina to European ports with those from the wheat belts of the United States to the same ports. Such an attempt has recently been made, however, by a Washington statistician, Mr. Robert R. Kuczynski, and the results of his investigation appear in the current number of the Journal of Political Economy (University of Chicago Press).

In the introductory part of the paper there is a table giving for the last two quinquennial periods the average yearly wheat crop of all the countries having an average annual output of more than 50,000,000 bushels.

Countries.	Average annual crop in 1,000 bushels.			Percentage.
	1891-95.	1896-1900.	1891-1900.	1891-1900.
United States	490,246	540,503	515,375	20.00
European Russia	369,632	370,043	369,838	14.35
France	299,563	324,737	312,150	12.12
British India	247,982	215,186	231,584	8,99
Hungary	148,017	127,701	137,859	5.35
Italy	126,427	125,432	125,930	4.89
Germany	107,846	132,126	119,986	4.66
Spain	87,144	98,942	93,043	3.61
Asiatic Russia	77,332	85,885	81,608	3.17
Great Britain	56,999	62,755	59,877	2.32
Argentina	53,000	63,939	58,469	2.27
Roumania	57,053	49,725	53,389	2.07
Canada	51,406	53,913	52,660	2.04
All other countries	372,787	356,729	364,757	14.16
Total	2,545,434	2,607,616	2,576,525	100.00

From this table it appears that Argentina's wheat crop is only 2.27 per cent., or one fortyfourth of the world's total wheat product. This fact, taken by itself, might lead the superficial reader to infer that the South American republic can never become formidable as a competitor with the United States, where 20 per cent. of the world's product is now annually raised. It is only when we consider the question of home consumption in the various wheat growing countries that we can form an adequate idea of their relative importance as exporters. Argentina has, in fact, a smaller population than that of any other of the twelve countries included in the table. It has, therefore, a smaller need of wheat for home consumption. From the data obtained by the Argentine Department of Agriculture, it appears that only about 31 per cent, of the wheat crop is consumed within the country, and 9 per cent. is used for seed, leaving 60 per cent. available for export, while in the United States only about one-third of the crop can be exported. Hence the fact that the present export of wheat from Argentina is only exceeded by that of the United States and Russia. In the last decade (1891-1900) the average annual export of domestic wheat from the United States and Russia amounted to 102,000,000 bushels each, and from Argentina to 35,000,000 bushels.

ARGENTINE WHEAT LAID DOWN IN EUROPE FOR LESS MONEY THAN THE NORTH AMERICAN PRODUCT.

On the subject of transportation charges, it is impossible, in the space at our disposal, to do more than quote the conclusion of the very elaborate discussion presented in the *Journal of Political Economy*:

"The freight rate on wheat from the local station to the ocean has been estimated for Argentina at 7 cents, for the Pacific coast region at $10\frac{1}{3}$ cents, for the wheat territory east of the Rocky Mountains at about 14 or 15 cents per bushel. If to these rates the different average ocean rates are added, the total freight rate per bushel of wheat to the English market would be from Argentina about 16 cents, and in the United States for the wheat shipped over the Atlantic ports, about 20 cents; over the guif ports, about 20 cents; over the Pacific ports, about 30 cents.

"The conclusions which might be drawn from the preceding study may be summarized as follows: It seems that the cost of hauling the wheat from the farm to the local station is considerably lower in Argentina than in the United States; that the cost of transporting the wheat from the local station to the shipping port is lower in Argentina than in the Pacific coast region of the United States, while it will be about as high as that of transporting the wheat grown east of the Rocky Mountains on a local rate to the primary market; that the ocean rates from Argentina are considerably lower than those from the Pacific coast region, and that therefore the cost of transportation from the local station in Argentina to Europe is considerably lower than from the local station in the Pacific coast region to Europe; that while the ocean rates from Argentina are higher than from the Atlantic and gulf seaports, the difference is by far not so large as the freight rate from the primary market to the ocean in the United States; that as a consequence hereof, even if account is taken of rebates and of the existence of through rates from local stations to the ocean, the transportation from the local station in Argentina to the European market is likewise lower than from the local station east of the Rocky Mountains to Europe, and that consequently the average rate for transporting the wheat from the Argentine farm to the European market is lower than from the farm in the United States."

HOW TO SAVE A DROWNING MAN.

I N Outing for August, Mr. Alexander Meffert tells how to go about saving a drowning person. In the first place, he shows that the direct danger of cramp seizure is not at all so serious as swimmers suppose. Nearly every swimmer seized with a cramp could save himself if he did not get frightened. Cramp comes from going into the water when overheated, from swimming with a stomach full of undigested food, or from staying too long in the water and taking a chill. It attacks only a leg or an arm, or perhaps only a foot or a hand. Any good swimmer could get

along with such a handicap if he did not get frightened; but nearly every one gets frightened, thrashes around, and fills his lungs with water.

Mr. Meffert says the great thing in trying to save a person in danger is to take one's time at the rescue. A little water swallowed by the drowning person will not hurt, and to swim right up to him invites the one great danger of his grasping the rescuer, which practically always means the death of both.

Mr. Meffert says the proper way is to swim up to the struggling man, but to keep out of the reach of his arms until he has become incapable of violent effort. If he tries to seize hold of you, the left hand should be put against his

lower jaw to push him away.

When the drowning man seems to be quiet, the best way is to take him by the hair with the left hand and swim ashore with your right. his hair is too short, then the back of his coat or shirt collar is the proper place to take hold. there are neither clothes nor hair to afford a grip, the safest way is to approach from behind, put one of your hands in each of his armpits, treading the water meanwhile, and then pull the drowning man back until he is floating face up, at the same time bringing your feet upward and forward until they are under the other's body. Then you swim on your own back, dragging the unconscious man. This cannot be done with very heavy people, of course. In such a case the best way is to take hold of his left hand with your left hand, turn and swim, dragging him after you, but this has a danger of making it easy for him to grasp you.

THE LEGION OF HONOR.

I N the first June number of the Revue de Paris, M. Aulard contributes some interesting pages concerning the centenary of the Legion of Honor. This great French order, admirably named by Napoleon, was instituted by him on May 19, 1802. It was an attempt on the part of the First Consul to reconstitute at least one of the old honorable distinctions which have played so great a part in monarchic France, and it was intended to take the place—as, indeed, it has done during a hundred years—of the three great French orders,—that of St. Michael, that of the Holy Ghost, and that of St. Louis. The last of these, founded in 1693, was purely military, but was only given to those who could prove themselves possessed of four quarters of nobility.

Only Catholic soldiers could receive this distinction, an exception, however, being made in favor of officers belonging to Swiss regiments. During the Revolution such distinctions were

abolished, with the one exception of the Society of Cincinnati, which had a brief run, being copied from the American military decoration of that name. Napoleon, even as First Consul, was most anxious to revive some form of honorable distinction which should replace the old cross of St. Louis; accordingly, when he considered the time was ripe, he let it be known that a new order was about to be instituted, of which the members would bear the honorable name of Legion of Honor. The proposition provoked a considerable amount of opposition, but of course there were many more who approved than who disapproved, and once Napoleon became Emperor the Legion of Honor became one of his most cherished institutions, and he reserved to himself the right of bestowing "the cross," as it soon became universally known, on those who seemed to him worthy of it. Probably few people are aware that at first it was considered advisable to make the knighthood obtained by the reception of the decoration hereditary, and that not only to legitimate children, but to natural children and even to adopted children. This absurd suggestion was soon brushed aside by the Emperor's good sense.

Under Napoleon nearly fifty thousand individuals belonging to all grades of society were enrolled in the Legion of Honor, and of this large number only fourteen hundred were civilians, the cross remaining essentially a military decoration. Napoleon founded many other orders; notably in Italy that of the Iron Crown. Yet another order of knighthood of a very exclusive character was known as the Three Golden Fleeces, and was only bestowed on the highest knights created. Yet a third order, which went by the absurd name of the Reunion, was intended to be equally suitable for bestowal on the great personages of all those countries whom the great

conqueror annexed.

Now, as most people are aware, the Legion of Honor has become the one great honorific distinction possessed by France. It has rather unfortunately changed in its original character. Thus, it is bestowed as a matter of course on all those worthy civilians who have served the state and public offices for a certain number of years. Again, a great number of crosses were rightly given on the field of battle during the Franco-Prussian War, and were thus the reward for conspicuous gallantry in action. Occasionally a signal act of personal courage, such as the saving of a number of persons from drowning, will secure some modest village hero the much-coveted decoration. A very limited number of French women have been given the cross; of these, perhaps, the best known outside the limits of her own country was the late Rosa Bonheur.

DARWINISM AND EMPIRE.

UR readers will remember how Mr. Rhodes evolved the idea of imperialism from what he believed was the fundamental principle of Darwinism. Mr. Ramsden Balmforth, in the Westminster Review, writes on the subject of "Darwinism and Empire," without referring, however, to Mr. Rhodes. He maintains that Darwinism and the evolutionists have been father to the doctrine which they would have been the first to repudiate. The average man is apt to think that fittest means best, whereas it really means that which is best adapted to the conditions of its environment. The idea that fitness and selection can be determined by strength, military power, cunning, or even intelligence is inadequate, for the environment of man, the moral or spiritual shell in which our lives are cast, demands morality, an ever-ascending type of morality, from us, or we perish. As Darwin himself says, a tribe rich in moral qualities would spread and be victorious over other tribes, and its social and moral qualities would tend slowly to advance and be diffused throughout the world. According to evolutionary ethics, it is with nations as with individuals: nor strength nor cunning, nor intelligence alone, but character determines fitness.

What kind of character is it, then, asks Mr. Balmforth, which determines fitness? Not, he answers, the pushful, cunning, trading character, or the self-righteous, proselytizing character, but rather the restrained, self-contained character, which is content with a modest competence, which seeks righteousness rather than gain, which keeps its word even to its own temporary hurt, and which is the friend and defender of weak and struggling nationalities. Mr. Balmforth does not think that England's policy either in South Africa or in China has been such as to promote the survival of the highest types of character. In both countries England was the original aggressor. And to attempt to persist in securing success is to promote the survival of a low filibustering type of character. It is no use for Englishmen to say that they have gone so far they cannot turn back. Nature will allow no excuses of that sort. The farther we go in a wrong direction the greater will be the distance over which we shall have to retrace our steps. England's war policy has not the test of fitness, which natural selection itself imposes—a test of character. Without it England would ultimately have triumphed more completely than with it, and the policy has been a decided set-back to the moral development of the race.

In China things have been even worse. Hence he thinks that true statesmanship on Darwinian

principles should aim at bringing the will, intelligence, and moral ideals into quickened activity and emulation, rather than the lower powers and activities which seem to bring out the latent instincts of the ape and tiger. The wisest statesmen are those who set their faces like a flint against the policy of war, and who, by conciliation, by conference, by arbitration, by respect for national rights, by international deputations and congresses, bring the best thought of each civilization into sympathetic contact with that of the other, and seek to resolve the conflicting elements of each in the harmony of the higher unity, and to promote the peace of the world and permanent welfare of mankind.

THE PYGMIES OF CENTRAL AFRICA.

I N the Atlantic Monthly for August, Mr. Samuel Phillips Verner has an unusually readable article on "The African Pygmies," whom he has visited and studied in their native town in Central Africa, on the Kasai River, a tributary of the Congo. These are the true pygmies of Herodotus, the fabled dwarfs of Ethiopia. The little folk lived in a city called Ndombe, ruled over by a king of the same name. There are about 5,000 in the city, and 300 more around it. They dwell in little huts shaped like a beehive, with an opening on the side at the bottom, barely large enough to admit their bodies crawling. Although a fullgrown negro could not even lie down at full length in such a house, one of them suffices for a pygmy and his whole family, sometimes consisting of a wife and half a dozen children.

The pygmies are occupied almost solely in hunting and fishing, their chief weapon being a bow and poisoned arrows. These arrows have no heads except the mere sharpened point of bamboo, but they are dipped into a vegetable decoction which is one of the most fatal poisons known, and which produces insanity or death almost immediately, even if the arrow makes not much

more than a scratch.

The pygmy community is ruled by a giant king, Ndombe, who stands six feet six inches in stature, with broad, square shoulders, Herculean limbs, and massive statuesque features of a distinctively Egyptian cast. Mr. Verner says he has never seen the man's physical superior. He has thirty-one wives and over forty children, and his family connections are so extensive that they occupy a whole town. The pygmies themselves, however, do not usually have more than one wife.

The clothing of the little negroes was the mostprimitive imaginable. The children and some of the women went nude, and the most elaborate costume amounted to nothing more than a yard

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of palm fiber around their loins, this garment being obtained from the other natives.

"The average height of fifty grown men of the Batwa village was fifty-one and seven-eighths inches, or four feet and nearly four inches. Seven of these were less than three feet and nine inches high, and five of them were over four feet six inches. It was very difficult to persuade the women to submit to measurement, but eight of them, mothers of families, averaged forty-seven and three-eighths inches, four inches shorter than the men. The prevalent color was a light chocolate brown. The older men wore scanty beards.

The head of the pygmy is of the brachycephalic order. The mean cranial index of the skulls of eight adult males was eighty-one degrees. The nose was small, but more aquiline than that of the real negro. The mouth was large, and the chin The hair was of a lighter usually receding. color, -almost a shade of brown, -and was kinky and woolly. Their hands and feet were small and well shaped, the hands in particular being delicately formed. In proportion to their size, their strength far exceeded that of all the other Africans. Their powers of endurance on the march or in the chase were phenomenal. Fifty miles a day was an ordinary march for them, and they were almost as much at home in the trees as the monkeys themselves. The senses of the pygmies were unusually acute. At quite a distance, they could distinguish the chameleon from the foliage in which it was hidden, notwithstanding the fact that the color of the little animal coincided with that of its hiding-place. Much of their quarry was discovered through the powers of the nose, and it is no exaggeration to say that the pygmies' sense of smell was as keen as that of their dogs. They were such shots with the bow that I have seen one send an arrow through a rat at twenty yards, while it was running across the The Bantu would spear fish as they leaped from the water, or darted among the rocks in the streams.

Mr. Verner cites the scientific fact that no traces have been found of any human beings prior to the pygmies. It is certain that the little people have apparently preserved and enjoyed a physical entity for five thousand years. He does not attempt to decide between the various hypotheses as to the origin of the pygmy race, some holding that the ancestors of the pygmies were larger men, and that the present dwarfs are a degenerate race, and others that the pygmies have been unchanged from their creation. It is interesting to know that the Kasai valley has recently been opened to steam navigation, a steamboat for the river having been built at Rich-

mond, Va., and that the ethnologists will have a good opportunity of making a thorough study of the peculiar race of men.

AN ENGLISHMAN'S PLEA FOR A NATIONAL THEATER.

MR. WILLIAM ARCHER contributes to the Monthly Review for July an earnestly written statement of the case for national the-By this he means that theaters should be created in every center of population, which would not be conducted simply for the benefit of individuals, but should be held in trust for the public at large by some representative body, which, directly or indirectly, should control them. As libraries, museums, and picture galleries are public institutions, so the theater, ought to be one of the intellectual glories of the English-speaking race, must also be a public institution. The drama flourishes best in countries like Germany and France, which treat it as a public concern.

THE COST OF THE MODERN THEATER.

Mr. Archer points out that for any play to succeed it must attract at least 50,000 spectators in the course of three months. Plays that do this succeed, plays that do not fail. What chance, asks Mr. Archer, would there be of Mr. Meredith or Mr. Hardy being able to place a new novel before the world if they had to find fully 50,000 purchasers in the course of three months, incurring an initial outlay of from £1,000 to £3,000, and to publish a fresh edition every day at a cost of £100? The consequence of the theater being run solely as a money-making institution is deplorable. Mr. Archer says:

"Can it be doubted, for instance, that 'musical comedy,' English and American, does more than ten thousand pulpits can undo to glorify and enforce the sporting, gambling, barhaunting, champagne-drinking, flashy, and dissolute ideal of life which dominates that class of production? Do we not see whole regiments of young men modeling themselves in dress, manners, vocabulary, and, as far as possible, in morals, upon this or that popular comedian whose leering inanities they regard as the last word of human wit?"

MR. ARCHER'S SUGGESTION.

This, indeed, is a canker of the commonwealth. In London musical extravaganza has almost completely swamped the higher forms of drama. It is a political force, and draws the whole English-speaking world together in the bonds of racial

vulgarity. Mr. Archer hopes that the idea of an endowed theater will find practical expression in some pioneer city from the coöperation of private munificence with public intelligence. He says:

"Could there be an object of greater public utility than that of rendering the most fascinating and universally popular of the arts a source of intellectual and emotional, as well as merely sensuous and sensational, pleasure?

"The realization is gradually spreading among us Anglo-Saxons that a well-ordered theater stands high on the list of institutions indispensa-

ble to an enlightened community.

In Germany the ideal of the theater as a public institution, not a private money-making machine, has always triumphed and pulled things together. The result is that the German theater of to-day keeps the classics of German literature constantly before the people; treats Shakespeare far more intelligently than we do ourselves; and has produced an extraordinarily rich and varied contemporary drama, vying with that of France, and incomparably more important, in every point of view, than the contemporary drama of England and America.

"I suggest, then, that the establishment of a repertory theater, on the lines of the German city theaters, in every considerable town (say, of 150,000 inhabitants and upward) in the English-speaking world, would be a magnificent national and racial investment, even if each theater in-

volved a considerable annual outlay."

ELEVATION OF THE GERMAN DRAMA.

IN the first quarterly issue of the Forum, Mr. John Corbin contributes an account of the present condition and prospects of the drama in the United States. By way of contrast he pictures theatrical conditions in Germany:

"The theatrical situation in Germany is geographically the same as in America,—that is to say, there are many widely separated cities, each one the seat of a vigorous civic spirit. The commercial basis of the German theater, however, is the direct opposite of that in America. The origin of the theater was not in the great mass of the public, but in the more intelligent portion of it associated with the royal courts of Germany. In Munich, Stuttgart, Vienna, Berlin, and many other capitals there are theaters which, like the Théâtre Français, are supported in part by the national treasury. These theaters are what we should call local stock companies of the highest character; and for more than a century they have given frequent productions of the best dramas in the literature of the world, ancient and modern. Modeled upon these, in the leading commercial cities, stock company theaters have been founded which depend for support on the municipality, and even on private subscription.

HEALTHFUL VARIETY FOR ACTORS AND PUBLIC.

"No sooner has a play proved successful in one German city than it is rehearsed and put on the boards in all,—thus becoming a part of the repertory of twenty or thirty different companies at once. This does away at a stroke with such organization of booking as is at the root of the commercial evil of the American theater. It also does away with the long run, which is the root of our artistic evil, for the rules of the theaters generally require that even the most successful pieces shall not be played more than four times a week, in order that the rest of the time may be taken up with revivals of the classics and with productions of new plays. The actors are thus benefited by constant variety. In spite of this, however, a play is in the end given as often as there is a public to witness it, runs of one and two hundred performances being perhaps as frequent as in America. It is true that in any particular city the returns to the authors and the managers come in more slowly, but this is more than balanced by the fact that the play runs simultaneously in all the leading cities. In many other ways this system is superior to ours. The author has a score of managers to whom to offer a new play. The actor, when his abilities warrant, travels as a guest from this theater to that, availing himself of the local company and of its stock scenery. The public is constantly able to see the best old plays, and at the same time every novelty of the season. Even the mercantile classes share in the general profit, for a large floating public of well-to-do people is attracted by the great educational advantages which a repertory theater offers.

GERMAN ACTORS IN THE UNITED STATES.

"As for America, or at least English-speaking America, no one who knows the conservative power of established organization, even of the worst, will look for any early duplication of this system. As far as the German-speaking public is concerned, the system is to be seen in full operation: there are vigorous and successful repertory theaters in New York, Philadelphia, Chicago, and Milwaukee, and every season great German actors, such as Possart, Sorma, Odilon, Bonn, and Sonnenthal, make the tour of all these theaters as guests. But it will be many years, it is to be feared, before this admirable example is imitated by the English-speaking public."

EDUCATION BY NEWSPAPER.

NOVEL plan for a system of popular education has been proposed in India. The proposal is contained in a paper by Mr. S. S. Thorburn, read before the East India Association, and published in the July number of the Asiatic Quarterly. Mr. Thorburn's proposal is, briefly, to publish in each center, and in all the vernaculars, a government newspaper which would educate the people. At present education in India is bad, and journalism worse. Only about one in four hundred of the number of boys in India is being seriously educated, and only 10 per cent. are undergoing any education at all. At present the great bulk of educated candidates for government employment must struggle for positions worth less than \$100 a year. Education higher than elementary is almost confined to town-dwellers; the educated product is cast upon the world at an age when instruction is only beginning to expand the mind into a thinking machine; and the educated class, unfit for other pursuits, seeks clerical employment, in which the openings are few.

The reading of this new class is restricted to the cheapest of the vernacular papers, of which there are nearly six hundred. These papers pay badly, and have small circulations, while the fear of being prosecuted for seditious writing is ever before them.

GOVERNMENT NEWSPAPERS.

Mr. Thorburn, in view of these facts, proposes that the government of each department should start and maintain a first-class daily paper in the town vernacular, which would be sold at a rate which would compare with the cheapest journals now circulating. He thinks that even if a loss of a lac of rupees in each case resulted, the outlay would be productive. The editors should be persons worthy of respect, either English or native, and such men, says Mr. Thorburn, would be cheap at 3,000 rupees a month. Mr. Thorburn thinks that after a time the loss would be inconsiderable.

WHAT ANGLO-INDIANS THINK.

Mr. Thorburn calls this education by newspaper, but it is obvious that the effect would be political as well. After his paper was read the project was discussed by several members, none of whom approved of it. Sir Lepel Griffin said he did not think that the starting of a few newspapers would be enough to tackle the grave difficulty which the higher education of the natives was every day making more important. Mr. Digby was even less favorable. He does not

think that British newspapers make good citizens. He points out certain practical difficulties. Would the editor, he asks, have a free hand? If so, he would have to circulate damaging criticisms on the Indian Government, such as those of Mr. Caine in the House of Commons. The government would be a resounding board, through which the voice of criticism would echo through the land. The editor would be compelled to take sides, and would thus incur the enmity of one party. A large number of papers would be needed, there being eighty languages in India, twenty of which are spoken by not less than a million persons. If the papers were good, they would supersede the present English and native papers, destroying the occupation of the present journalists. Mr. Digby does not think that the men could be found to work the project. If the Indians are to become loyal citizens of a prosperous empire, they must be regarded as equals. The British cannot for all time stand in loco parentis to 230,000,000 people.

Mr. Thorburn, in his reply, argues that if the government newspapers were to kill all the lower-class newspapers circulating in India, so much the better. He maintains also that the newspapers would not need to be published in so many different languages, as no daily is now published except in the recognized official vernacular of a province and one spoken by all educated Indians.

The project, as will be seen, did not meet with favor. It is an interesting one, nevertheless. But surely a simpler plan, both in India and Russia, would be for the rulers to test for a tin.e the effect of granting real liberty to the press, the most effective of all enemies of sedition.

TOLSTOY ON EDUCATION AND INSTRUCTION.

IN La Revue for June 15, M. Jean Finot publishes an unrevised fragment from Count Tolstoy's pen on education and instruction. For the ideas therein he disclaims all responsibility.

RELIGIOUS DOCTRINE THE BASIS OF EVERYTHING.

As the basis of everything should be a religious doctrine suited to the degree of instruction of men, this doctrine cannot be Catholicism, Protestantism, Buddhism, nor any creed based on trust in certain prophets.

"This doctrine must be justified by the reason, aspirations, and experience of each man. And this doctrine is Christian doctrine in its most simple and reasonable expression. . . . Everything we teach children intentionally . . . is conscious inspiration; everything which children imitate . . . is unconscious suggestion.

"Conscious suggestion is what is called instruction; unconscious suggestion is what we call, in the narrow sense, education, and what I shall call enlightenment. . . . In our society instruction is very advanced, but real enlightenment is not only backward, but absent. . . . That education may be good and moral it is necessary, strange to say, that the life of the educators should be good. It must be good, not by chance in certain details, but its bases must be good."

"A good life" he defines as one that aspires toward perfection, toward love.

" INSTRUCTION."

As for instruction, or science, it is merely the transmission of the best thoughts of the best men on divers subjects. Such thoughts of good, intelligent men are always about (1) religious philosophy of life and its importance; (2) experimental and natural sciences; (3) logic and mathematics.

"All these are true sciences. . . . You know or you do not know. All sciences not corresponding to these requirements, such as theological, legal, and historical studies, are mischievous, and should be excluded."

Count Tolstoy also strongly insists on the importance of teaching some manual labor, be it carpentry, sewing, or other useful employment.

A DIVISION OF TIME.

"This is how I represent things to myself: the teachers fix hours themselves, but the pupils are free to come or not. . . . Entire freedom for the pupil to study when he wants to is the condition sine quant non of all useful teaching, is just as in eating the condition sine quant non now that the eater desires to eat. The only difference is that in material things the mischief of restriction of liberty is shown at once,—by sickness and derangement of the stomach,—and that in spiritual matter the results are shown less quickly, perhaps years later."

Eight hours for sleep, eight for "education in the narrow sense—enlightenment," also house-cleaning, manual work, with intervals for rest or play (dependable on age); eight hours for study, the subject to be entirely the choice of the pupils.

ON LANGUAGE TEACHING.

"As for the teaching of languages—the more one knows the better—I think it absolutely necessary to learn French and German, English, and, if possible, Esperanto (a universal language). Languages must be taught by making the pupil read a book he knows and trying to make him understand the general sense, then drawing attention to the essential words and their roots in the grammatical forms."

MARY'S HOUSE AT EPHESUS.

IN the Nouvelle Revue, M. B. D'Agen gives a curious account of the ancient building at Ephesus which is now believed by many Roman Catholics to have sheltered Mary, the mother of Christ, during the last year of her life on earth.

Not quite a hundred years ago there lived in Westphalia a village woman, Katherine Emmerich, who enjoyed a great local reputation for sanctity, and who lived the life of an anchorite. She had a Boswell in the person of a humble priest named Brentano, to whom she recounted at great length her marvelous visions, which all concerned, and, as it were, reconstituted, the life of Christ and of the Virgin Mary on earth. He kept a careful record of all she told him, and after her death several volumes dealing with her "revelations" were published; these included a "Life of the Virgin Mary," in which are to be found many extraordinary and most elaborate details, which the believers in Katherine Emmerich's exceptional sanctity regard as a valuable supplement to the Gospel narrative. It should, however, be added that this volume, as indeed all the "revelations" in question, never received the imprimata of Rome, and no effort seems to have been made to discover whether any of the statements contained in the volumes could be verified by journeys to the Holy Land, or to the other places mentioned therein.

Twelve years ago the superior of a monastery at Smyrna happened to come across the "Life of the Virgin," and reading it with a certain incredulous interest, came upon a passage where the visionary described, with the most minute care, the house in which it had been revealed to her that the Virgin Mary dwelt, near Ephesus, during the last few months of her life. Struck by the accuracy of some of the details concerning the country, he made up his mind to seek for this spot, "some three leagues or three and a half leagues from Ephesus, situated on a mountain reached by a tortuous and narrow way, and from the top of which can be seen Ephesus on the one side, and the sea on the other." The priest and a friend started off on July 27, 1891. After a short journey they arrived at the foot of Bulbul Dag, the mountain clearly indicated by the visionary, and there, after a stiff climb, they found the building in question. The news was sent off to Rome, where, however, it was received with skepticism, greatly owing to the undoubted fact that St. Polycarp, who was Bishop of Ephesus about the year 200, made no mention in his letters to the then pope of the house in question. In Asia Minor the spot has become a great place of pilgrimage, and the writer of this interesting little paper evidently believes firmly

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that here the modern world may indeed see the spot where, "after the crucifixion of our Lord at Jerusalem, the Blessed Virgin Mary, together with St. John, journeyed to Ephesus, and there spent the remaining year of her life."

THE SHEEP-DOG TRIALS IN ENGLAND.

HERE is a delightful article by A. Radclyffe Dugmore in Everybody's for August, describing "The Sheep-Dog Trials at Troutbeck," in the north of England. In this little retired village the sheep-herders of the north gather together every year to witness the trials of their collies, conducted according to the most stringent rules and regulations. The display of intelligence and beautiful training on the part of the sheep-dogs is most fascinating. Mr. Dugmore is not only a real artist with the camera, but is, as well, a wonderful observer and student of nature. The accounts of these trials are illustrated with his beautiful photographs taken at the last sheepdog trials in August, 1901.

The task set each dog was to convey three sheep over rough ground from the starting pen for about three-quarters of a mile to the finishing The route was fixed by flags, and the sheep had to be conveyed between these flags. The man whose dog was working stood on a knoll about 150 yards from the starting point, and not until his dog had gotten the sheep to the finishing point was he allowed to leave this knoll. From that distant point he had to guide his dog as best he could by signs and signals, shrill whistling, and sometimes calling.

Forty-two dogs were entered in the last trial, and Mr. Dugmore gives a vivid description of the

performance of the first starter, Laddie.

The dog seemed to realize that some special effort was called for to-day, and looked inquiringly first at his master and then toward the judges' tent. He seemed to be waiting eagerly to be released. The wave of a red flag was the signal for the simultaneous release of the three penned sheep and the anxious, eager dog. At once the latter made toward the three bewildered sheep, directed first by his master's call, for the bracken was high and hid the animals from the dog's view.

"But not long before he saw them, however. Without seemingly paying the slightest attention to his master's call, he hurried them along at a lively speed. Up the stone-covered hillside they scampered till they reached the first flag. Laddie stopped an instant for orders, -a simple whistle which he understood,-and once more the three sheep are off, with the dog following close behind, guiding them carefully, and keeping all three closely bunched together as they pass the first of a series of flags. . . . Over the top of the hill and down the slope they went, faster and faster, until, still well bunched, the brook was passed, and they were going up hill toward the first pair of flags. Then one of the sheep made a bolt toward the lower part of the crag; but Laddie turned it back quick as a flash, thereby saving much time. Once more they made for the opening between the two flags that seemed to be planted so very close together. When quite near they hesitated, and had to be urged on. As soon as they started in the right direction, Laddie lay down and watched them as they walked slowly along, leaving the flags on either side.

"Looking toward his master for new directions, he quickly overtook his charges, who were slowly making their way for the hilltop, and, turning them in the direction of the next flag, now forced them into a gallop. Over the rocks they went, sure-footed as goats, frequently lost to view among the bracken, but each time reappearing with the gray dog close at their heels.

"Nearer and nearer they came, to within six feet of the flags, and seemed to be going well, when suddenly, without warning, they galloped off on the wrong side. The bracken was so high that the poor dog had not seen the second mark. 'Coom t'me, lad! coom t'me!' shouted his mas ter, and then the dog realized that a mistake had been made, and ran to a clear piece of ground, from which he could see his master and get his signals. The sheep, fortunately, had stopped soon after passing the flag, and the dog understood that they must be driven back outside the mark (for such is the rule), then turned sharply round and brought between the two flags.

"How he understood it is difficult for us to realize, but that he did was proved by his actions; try as the sheep might to go the wrong way, Laddie, -now coaxing, now forcing them, soon had all three in position for starting again for the narrow way that led between the two fluttering flags.

"'T'hame, Laddie! t'hame!' called his master; and Laddie turned those sheep sharply round and brought them between the two red

and white flags at full gallop."

Finally Laddie gets them within a hundred yards of the pen, and his master leaves his knoll and runs to assist in the penning. The pen has an opening only big enough to admit one sheep, and so placed as to give the worst possible angle of entrance. Moreover, the driving has to be completed in a certain time, and only one minute and twenty seconds remains.

"J. R. stood on one side of the pen and beckoned Laddie to bring the three scared-looking sheep forward. Slowly they came until near the goal; then, before man or dog could stop them, all three bolted past, and fully half a minute was

lost in bringing them back.

"At last, by coaxing ever so gently, they were taken to the pen, and two were passed through the narrow entrance and penned. The third, however, turned at the critical moment and bolted.

"Time was nearly up; but a few seconds remained. Could the animal be recovered before

those seconds had passed?

"The spectators held their breath and watched intently; the time-keeper stood, watch in hand, ready to call the fatal word 'Time,' while the man and the dog were working with nervous energy. It was a race against the second-hand of a watch, and the odds were in favor of the second-hand. Fortunately the two sheep in the pen had remained there, so the undivided attention was given to bringing in the third, which had run about fifty yards before Laddie could turn it. Back they came, the driven and the driver, until once more they were close to the pen. Then the dog dropped down, with his head on his paws, watching the sheep as it stood near the narrow entrance.

"Nearer and nearer came the man, with arms outspread, while the dog crawled on his belly toward the staring, panting sheep. Once the sheep turned, as though to run, when, quick as a flash, Laddie stood up and took a step forward, ready to cut off the retreat; but the sheep, thinking better of it, turned toward the pen, and, after hesitating a moment, slowly entered,

one second ahead of time."

Our friend Laddie, however, did not win the prize on this day. It went to an old dog named Jack, "who gave one of the finest exhibitions of the day, making some wonderful retrieves, keeping his sheep well in hand while he completed the course and the penning in seven minutes and thirty seconds."

MOVEMENTS OF BRAINLESS ANIMALS.

THE purposefulness and control of the movements of animals from which the brain has been wholly or partially removed is the subject of a paper by Dr. L. Merzbacher, in the last number of the Archiv für die gesammte Physiologie des Menschen und der Thiere.

What the physical basis of consciousness is, and how bodily activities are incited and controlled, are questions which have always both interested and eluded learned men. The Chinese held the belief that the stomach was the seat of the mind. In later times the doctrine of the

spirits prevailed among European nations, according to which thought and motion were caused by a fluid that passed out from the brain through a system of tubes in the body and back to the brain again. After that scientists took up the study of anatomy, and mere theorizing became unpopular. From anatomical studies it seemed that the brain was a great mass of nervous material that exerted a controlling influence over the body, responded to stimuli, and originated impulses which were conducted through the body over nerves extending out from the brain. We are now turning away from this extreme view of the controlling influence of the brain, in the light of certain experiments made upon animals with mutilated brains, and with the present diversity of opinion the scientist may say with the poet that he has come "Wo er nichts Festes zu erfassen weiss."

For the studies described, a number of frogs were chloroformed, their skulls opened, and parts of the brain removed, after which the frogs were cared for until they recovered. Those frogs from which the cerebral hemispheres and optic thalami had been wholly removed were able to use their legs as well as before, making all customary movements, and coordinating the movements with each other. Operations upon both the brain and the posterior roots of the spinal nerves that extend into the legs produce a marked effect upon the movements, the hind legs doing as they will, sometimes acting in harmony with the fore legs, sometimes not, or each leg would move independently without regard either to the fore legs or to the corresponding member on the

opposite side.

In a number of frogs the sensory roots of the nerves supplying the hind legs were cut through. When only one side is operated upon, the frog is usually ready to spring away immediately after the operation, the only difference being a slight tendency of the foot and lower part of the leg to cling to the thigh. If the legs do not assume the right position at once after the spring, they usually do in a short time. When both sides are operated upon, the effects are more pronounced and of a different nature, showing that the movements of one extremity are affected by the movements of its mate on the opposite side; that the sensibility and motility of one foot induces equally strong reactions in the opposite member.

This influence which the mobility and sensibility of one side exerts on the other has its parallel in human pathology, as shown in cases of one-sided paresis, when one limb can be moved only when similar motions are made at the same time by the other.

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The writer finds three sources of control for every member. Parts of the brain, the sensibility of the extremity itself, and sympathetic influence exerted by the sensibility and motility of the corresponding organ opposite. The regulation through sensibility is relatively strongest.

THE WHITE ELEPHANT.

"THE Glory and Decadence of the White Elephant" is the title of an article by M. Henry de Varigny in the Bibliothèque Universelle, from which may be gleaned some curious details as to this favored one among his kind.

The white elephant, as is not perhaps universally known, is not white at all, -only of lighter hue than his fellows, his hide being light or reddish gray. A perfect specimen should have pink eyes with yellow iris, hide of a light brownish red, and the interior of his ears and trunk, as well as his nails, should be white, and his hair red. But Europeans are unjust in attributing the epithet "white" to Oriental exaggeration, as the error is that of translators having an imperfect knowledge of the fine points of Eastern vernaculars. "The truth is," says Pyana, in a recent article in the Imperial and Asiatic Quarterly Review, "that the term of white elephant does not exactly translate the Siamese or Burmese word which indicates the color of the animal. In Burmese, for instance, they say sin pyu, sin meaning elephant. But pyu, although meaning white, has also other acceptations,-such as gray, light, less dark. It is used to characterize the lighter complexion of a native woman less dusky than her countrywomen without being even remotely to be confounded with a Caucasian. Besides, the Burmese often use the expression sin nec, meaning red elephant. In Siamese the animal is called chang pueuk, chang being equivalent to elephant. which formerly meant white or light, is now only used in the sense of albino. Thus we see that the native expressions are erroneously translated by white elephant; the correct term would be light elephant."

THE WHITE ELEPHANT IN MYTHOLOGY.

According to the Buddhist legend, before assuming the human form of Gautama, the founder of Buddhism, Buddha lived in the form of a white elephant; so, in all probability the prestige of the white elephant dated much further back than Buddhism, else he would not have been chosen as the precursor of Gautama. Indeed, the elephant had his place in the Indian pantheon since the most remote periods. Indra was always represented as mounted on an elephant, who shared

in his divinity; and in the ancient worship of the sun, the white elephant and the white horse were considered emblems of the sun himself. Inspired, doubtless, by reminiscences of the solar myth, there is a Vedic tradition that at certain long-separated periods in the existence of the world, a universal monarch makes his appearance on earth. He is of celestial origin, and the initiated recognize him by varied and numerous For the feet alone there are thirty-two signs. Besides physical signs, this miraculous personage possesses seven particularly precious accessories, and the chief of these is a white elephant. Without the white elephant, all claims lack authenticity. Hence it is easily understood why the different kings of the Indo-Chinese region and of the Buddhist countries, -each deeming himself the only authentic descendant of the ancient Vedic kings, all cherishing the hope of becoming the legendary universal monarch,consider the white elephant an indispensable possession, and have done and do all in their power to procure him, by hook or by crook, -by crook preferably, because it is the surer way.

But the true country of the white elephant is Indo-China. There his prestige has been longest maintained. There the proudest orders of knighthood bear his image on their regalia; there he still majestically represents the national antiquity and glory on the royal banner. The travelers who visited Siam and the neighboring regions in the sixteenth century bear witness to this veneration in many passages. When the Trojans were fighting because of a woman, many Orientals waged war to gain a white elephant, and even about 1650 there was continual strife between the Siamese and the king of Pegu because of seven white elephants the latter coveted.

HONORED IN HIS OWN COUNTRY.

Only twenty-five years ago the lot of the white elephant in Siam was an extremely enviable one. A party of hunters discovered a very good specimen. The news spread, and the whole country went wild with delight. The king immediately dispatched an escort of great personages, whose duty it was to mount guard around the animal, which was tied by silken ropes in the forest where he was found. For, like his ordinary brethren, the white elephant has to undergo a course of taming and domestication before he is brought to the capital. Professionals instructed him in etiquette, and the great personages served as guard of honor. Meanwhile, people flocked from all directions to see him, bringing presents and invoking for him the divine protection. He was then conducted in royal pomp to Ayuthia, special roads having been built from the place of

his discovery to the nearest highway, and a sort of floating house of rare wood, drawn by pontoons, lined with silk, adorned with banners, and surrounded by a flotilla of gilded barks, was furnished to convey him across the river. The king, with the court, met the cavalcade here, and kneeling before the elephant made appropriate offerings. The priests then read a very long address of welcome, ending thus: "It is due to your own merit that you have at last come to see this beautiful city, to enjoy its riches and to become the favored guest of His Most Serene Majesty the King." Then the Brahmins baptized him with holy water, and bestowed on him the

highest title the king could confer.

This title was written on a piece of sugar cane, together with a number of phrases enumerating the qualities, virtues, and perfections of the new lord, and the sugar cane was extended to His Highness, who swallowed it on the spot, thus indicating that he accepted the honors granted him. Then the procession advanced to Bangkok, all illuminated and decorated in honor of the event. Here awaited him a palace second in splendor only to the king's; an elaborate wardrobe,velvet and silk coverings embroidered in gold and jewels, -ornaments and marvelous trappings, with a gold plaque to be suspended on his forehead (on which was inscribed his patent of nobility); a prime minister, a retinue of slaves, a choir of priests, an orchestra of musicians, anda corps de ballet! To maintain this establishment a whole district was granted him, all the revenues of which were paid into his treasury. amply provided for, His Elephantine Highness led a life so indolent that he soon succumbed to the too great kindness lavished upon him. Then a royal funeral was given him, and the search for a successor was begun.

DEATH IN FOLK-LORE.

NE of the most interesting articles in the Revue de Paris is that by M. Le Braz, dealing with what may be called the folk-lore view of death. From time immemorial, he points out, the Celtic race have believed in a future life, and have made themselves familiar with the thought of death. In southern Europe the inevitable approach of the great Destroyer has ever been regarded with intense horror and fear. The Romans, -who were, of course, southern, -were amazed at the calmness with which the northern races conquered by them regarded death. The Gauls had among their divinities one who was styled the God of Death, and many of them believed that from him all mankind was descended. The Celtic ancients believed that the country of

the dead lay beyond the seas, and was in fact a real country or tract of land.

Occasionally, in the oldest folk-lore of Brittany, historians come across traces of this idea, for it not unfrequently happened that a bereaved widow would set sail on the sea in the firm hope that she would reach the "other side." Of ghosts, or returning spirits (those that come back, as they are styled in France), the Celtic people seem to have had no thought at all till about the tenth century; but during the last thousand years spirits have played a considerable rôle in Celtic literarature, and both in Ireland and in Brittany is constant reference made to the banshee, who foretells disaster by her presence.

Brittany has remained curiously mediæval, and in nothing more so than in her somewhat morbid interest in death. Even now in many a Breton village the parish church is not known as the House of God, but as the "House of the Dead;" and till quite recently there was a place put apart for the reception of the bones of the departed. Not unfrequently, in addition to the ordinary village fane, a second chapel, entirely given up to the cult of the dead, claimed each Sunday the suffrages of the villagers. Many of these remain, and are extremely beautiful, notably the Campo Santo of St. Pol de Leon. Inscriptions,-some curious, some pathetic, some strangely pagan,—are to be found running round these mortuary chapels. Many are in Latin, others in French, and even more in Celtic. A favorite motto is that addressed to the still living passer-by: "Oh! sinner, repent while there is still time, for one day you will also be here." Yet another favorite dictum is a Celtic verse of which the sense, roughly speaking, may be rendered: "Death, judgment and hell; when mankind thinks on these things it should tremble. He who does not think of death is surely lacking in mind." Once a year, on the eve of All Saints' Day, processions take place all over Brittany, each wending its way to one of these mortuary chapels.

Of late years there has been an attempt made on the part of the municipal authorities to build these mortuary chapels at some distance from the villages. This appears like profanation to the pious Bretons, whose ideal mortuary would always be placed in the very middle of the village, with the houses grouped round. It is thought to be unlucky if an infant on its way to be christened does not go through a burial ground, and the cemetery is the chosen meeting-place for lovers. There is something profoundly touching about a Breton churchyard; the graves are beautifully kept and covered with quaint offerings.

THE PERIODICALS REVIEWED.

THE CENTURY MAGAZINE.

HE opening article of the August Century is "The New New York," Mr. Randall Blackshaw's account of what is being done to make a great city on Manhattan Island. The original purchase price of Manhattan Island was about \$24. To-day building sites have brought more than \$240 a square foot, and the assessed valuation of real estate in Greater New York is to-day about \$3,250,000,000, Mr. Blackshaw thinks that of all great works now in course of construction on Manhattan, the most significant are the projected railway tunnels, with the East River bridges taking second place. Next to these comes the erection of such magnificent buildings as the Episcopal cathedral, the public library, the proposed post office and the custom house, the chamber of commerce and the stock exchange. Mr. Blackshaw thinks that the proposed tri-centennial celebration of the discovery of the Hudson River will find us in 1909 with a city three centuries old that we can be proud of.

THE KING OF AMERICAN SHOWMEN.

There is an excellent sketch of the late "P. T. Barnum, Showman and Humorist," by Joel Benton. Mr. Benton writes of Barnum as the gigantic dispenser of amusement. Mr. Barnum's home was at Bridgeport, Conn., and he was fond of putting something in the buildings and fields that suggested a show. On one occasion he had an elephant engaged in plowing on a sloping hill where it could plainly be seen by passengers of the New York, New Haven & Hartford Rail-This sight was so widely described and discussed that the showman received letters from farmers all over the United States, asking him how much hay an elephant ate, and if it were more profitable to plough with an elephant than with horses or oxen. Mr. Barnum invariably answered: "If you have a large museem in New York, and a gr w railway sends trains full of passengers within eyeshot cathe performance, it will pay, and pay well; but if you have no such institution, then horses or oxen will prove more economical." At Mr. Barnum's house the governor of Connecticut could be often seen, unbending himself; Horace Greeley was a not infrequent visitor, "Mark Twain" and Elias Howe often dropped in, and Matthew Arnold, when he came to America, was the guest of the showman.

THE WEST INDIAN VOLCANIC DI . STERS.

Prof. James F. Kemp, of Columbia University, writes on "Earthquakes and Volcanoes." There is a graphic record of the Martinique disaster in a letter written by the vicar-general of the island in the form of a journal from May 2 to May 21, and the life in the doomed city is shown by translations from the leading newspaper of St. Pierre, Les Colonies, in its editions of May 1 to 7, the week previous to the disaster. The Century pays attention, too, to St. Vincent's catastrophe, by printing the observations and narratives of two eye-witnesses, Captain Calder, chief of police of St. Vincent, and T. McG. McDonald, owner of the Richmond Vale estate on the island.

HARPER'S MAGAZINE.

HE August Harper's contains an article on "The Lineage of the Classics," by Dr. F. G. Kenyon, who tells how the works of the great authors of the ancient world, of Homer and Thucydides, of Virgil and Livy, have been preserved, and illustrates his explanation by reproductions from manuscripts in the British Museum. Of the classics proper we have no original autographs, nor any copies nearly contemporaneous with them. The plays of Æschylus were written between 485 and 450 B.C., for instance, and the earliest extant manuscript of them, a few unimportant scraps excepted, was written in the eleventh century, an interval of some 1,500 years. For Sophocles, for Thucydides, for Herodotus, the interval is substantially the same, and for Pindar and Euripides it extends to 1,600 years. Thus the destruction of manuscripts of the classics has been enormous owing to the fragility of the papyrus on which the original matter was written. Then the rolls of manuscript might be thirty feet long, which rendered them unwieldy and more liable to destruction. Many great authors have totally perished, and some of the great works of the classics wedo know have been finally

Prof. Robert K. Duncan writes on "Radio-Activity, A New Property of Matter." The cathode rays and the X-rays arise from a Crookes tube, a mechanism which is the complicated result of centuries of thought; they are a property of condition. The Becquerel rays, discov. ered by Henri Becquerel, a member of the French Institute, come from radium, a substance dug from the ground, which emits them, apparently, forever and forever, as it has emitted them through the countless centuries of the past, without any extrinsic influence. It is their natural intrinsic property—a new property of matter-radio-activity. The radium rays possess the X-ray properties of penetrating matter generally considered opaque. Aluminum is transparent to the rays, whose power is influenced only by the density of the substance interposed. Lead is comparatively opaque. The physiological effect of Becquerel rays is curious. A pinch of radium salt contained in a sealed glass tube was placed in a cardboard box, which was then tied to the sleeve of a professor for an hour and a half. An intense inflammation resulted, followed by a suppurating sore which took more than three months to heal. Mr. Duncan says that considering, then, the cost of the pitch-blende from which it is extracted, the value of radium would be at least \$10,000 a gramme. As a matter of fact, less than a gramme exists to-day.

Mr. Charles Hallock writes on "The Primeval North American" and the civilization which flourished in North America about ten thousand years ago. The Korean immigration of the year 544, which led to the founding of the Mexican empire in 1825, was but an incidental contribution to the growing population of North America. Mr. Henry W. Oldys contributes a very suggestive essay on "Parallel Growth of Bird and Human Music," and there is a plentiful supply of imaginative material embellished with pictures in colors.

SCRIBNER'S MAGAZINE.

'HE August Scribner's begins with a new short story by Rudyard Kipling, "Wireless," and the only break in this fiction number is Edith Wharton's Italian travel sketch, "A Midsummer Week's Dream." Mr. A. T. Quiller-Couch's story is impressively illustrated with colored reproductions of Howard Pyle's drawings; there is the beginning of a new serial by J. M. Barrie, "The Little White Bird;" and a number of other capital contributions of fiction go to make up a notable story number.

M'CLURE'S MAGAZINE.

HE August McClure's contains a sketch of John Mitchell, the labor leader, by Mr. Lincoln Steffens, and a study of "Mont Pelée In Its Might," by Prof. Angelo Heilprin, from both of which we have quoted in another department.

Miss Stone's account of her experience among the brigands is followed this month by Mrs. Tsilka's story of the little baby that was born while that lady was

sharing Miss Stone's captivity.

M. Santos-Dumont contributes an autobiographical sketch under the title, "How I Became an Aeronaut." The balloonist is only twenty-nine years old. He was born in Brazil. He says he was an aeronaut by nature, and his playmates used to tease him about his propensity to flying kites when he was a little boy. He has, in fact, evidently been studying the principles of human flight his whole life. M. Santos-Dumont has decided in favor of a petroleum motor, and the fundamental principle of his experiments has been the effort to minimize weight. Early in his experiments he constructed a 31/2 horse-power motor weighing only 66 pounds, a very remarkable engine at that time.

The balance of the August number is composed of fiction, including a daring but delicious little idyl by Stewart Edward White, "The Life of the Winds of

Heaven."

THE COSMOPOLITAN.

N the August Cosmopolitan, E. A. Bennett has a sketch of H. G. Well. sketch of H. G. Wells and his work. "Anticipations" is not the work of a Jules Verne, this writer explains. "The great difference between Jules Verne and Mr. Wells is that the latter was trained in scientific methods of thought, while the former was not. Before Jules Verne took to romances he wrote operatic libretti; before Mr. Wells took to romances he was a pupil of Huxley's at the Royal College of Science. He graduated at London University with first-class honors in science, and his first literary production was a text-

book of biology."

The Cosmopolitan continues its sketches of "Captains of Industry," with articles on William Rockefeller, Charles T. Yerkes, H. M. Flagler, W. C. Whitney, and A. J. Cassatt, president of the Pennsylvania Railroad. Of William Rockefeller, Mr. S. E. Moffett says he is noted among his associates and subordinates for his perfect mastery of all the details of the operation of the company, his clear and sound judgment, and his keen critical faculty. "He is not a physical weakling, like his formidable brother. The steam that drives his mental machinery comes from a capacious material boiler. His physique is of the robust, J. Pierpont Morgan type. He is an enthusiastic horseman, and a lover of the fields and woods. But, like all the Rockefellers, he is devoutly religious. He has only one vice,-he

plays the violin. Aside from that, he is exemplary in his private relations."

Mr. Charles S. Gleed gives Mr. Cassatt, the president of the great Pennsylvania system, credit for a wonderful faculty of selecting the important thing, and of leaving the next most important for another time or another man. Mr. Cassatt was highly educated, and then went through a rough-and-tumble experience as a surveyor's rodman on the Pennsylvania road.

Mr. Rafford Pyke, in an essay on "What Men Like in Men," places the quality of "squareness" first, then reasonableness, then courage, generosity, modesty, dignity, and tenderness, in the order named. There are articles on "London Society," "Diversions of Some Millionaires," "The Organization of a Modern Circus," "City Ownership of Seaside Parks," and the love story of Heine and Mathilde.

MUNSEY'S MAGAZINE.

N the August Munsey's, Donald Mackay, writing on "The Cow Puncher at Home," tells something of the life of the cowboy, who is, he says, practically the same to-day as in the early development of the West and Southwest. Cowboys are Americans generally, and sometimes English; "no man has ever seen a German cowboy, or a French." The cow puncher gets \$30 to \$75 a month, and saves it up for a considerable time, until he gets to the city, where it does not take long to separate himself from it. In the round-up each outfit consists of a cook wagon, a cook, two horse hustlers, and eight riders. Every 5,000 head of cattle requires such an outfit. Each rider possesses eight horses, three of which he uses every day. The cowboy country extends over the great prairies of Texas, Oklahoma, and New Mexico, and thence northward to Wyoming and Dakota. Mr. Mackay says that in Texas women have taken to ranching, and that one of the most successful, Mrs. Pauline Whitman, owns a ranch of 200,000 acres in the Pan Handle. She raises 15,000 cattle annually, and requires twenty cowboys for their handling.

Mr. Oscar K. Davis, formerly the New York Sun's correspondent in the Philippines, contributes an article on "The Moros in Peace and War," which is timely in view of the recent peacemaking with the Moro people. Mr. Davis says the Moros are the most formidable of the native tribes in the Philippines, and a campaign against them must be a serious affair. The center of Moro population in Mindanao is about Lake Lanao, in a fine upland country, where the natives cultivate great fields of rice and sweet potatoes. The Spaniards fought their way to this lake from the north coast in the face of tremendous resistance. They opened a road, which they protected with numerous blockhouses, and up which they lugged three small gunboats built in sections. The boats were put together at the lake and launched, but never saw much service, and were finally scuttled. Mr. Davis says the Moro fighters are very different from the Filipinos. Although they are poorly armed, they use with deadly skill and energy terrible knives which they make themselves, and with which they can easily cut a man's head from his shoulders by

one blow.

There are other articles in this number of Munsey's on "Country Life in England," by Lady Colin Campbell; the Stony Wold sanatorium for consumptives being established in the Adirondacks; "The New Photography," by Charles H. Caffin; and "College Girls' Dramatics," by Alice K. Fallows.

THE WORLD'S WORK.

N the August World's Work there is an article by Ray Stannard Baker telling how labor is organized in America, which we have quoted from in another department. The August number of this magazine is taken up largely with sixty or seventy pages of pictures and text descriptive of recreation grounds of the American people. To show what important financial terms the recreation of to-day is sometimes expressed in, the writer of the sketch "Across the Canadian Border" says that Mr. J. J. Hill pays for the privilege of fishing in the St. John River \$3,000 a year, with \$500 more for the St. Paul. Mr. H. W. deForest has leased for himself and his associates the fishing in the Grand Cascapedia for \$7,500 a year; Mr. I. W. Adams, of Boston, has paid \$30,000 outright for the privilege of fishing in the Moisie, and half as much more for another stream; Mr. Lewis Cabot refuses \$50,000 for his salmon-fishing rights in the Gaspe. The Restigouche Salmon Club, composed entirely of Americans, is so much sought for that its membership shares are worth from \$7,500 to \$10,000 each.

Mr. Frederick Palmer writes of "West Point After a Century;" O. P. Austin asks the question, "Will Our Commercial Expansion Continue?" and gives his opinion in the affirmative; and Mr. Russell Doubleday describes, in "New York to Chicago,—20 Hours," a trip on the new trains of the Pennsylvania and New York Central, that make the fastest long run in the world,—enabling a man from one city to do business in the other and be gone only one day.

COUNTRY LIFE.

N Country Life for August there is an article on "The Automobile," with some instructions for beginners. This writer does not attempt to award the palm to one or the other of the different types of automobiles in use now,-electric, gasoline, or steam. He calls attention to the fact that whereas the gasoline machine is very convenient and practical, and is easy to start, and can run for a long distance, -one or two hundred miles, on one filling of gasoline and water, -on the other hand, steam vehicles have remarkable hill-climbing power, and give an extraordinarily delicate control of the carriages and their speed. They run quietly, too, without vibration. But the steam vehicles must be replenished with water about every twenty-five or forty miles. As to prices, this writer does not seem to think there will be any radical lowering of prices in the near future. Steam and gasoline automobiles may now be purchased as low as \$600 or \$700. Well-built machinery is expensive; cheap and flimsy machinery is out of question on an automobile. He reminds us that the price of bicycles would show that automobiles are rather cheap, for a bicycle in its best form is built today for about two dollars a pound, whereas an automobile costs only about one dollar a pound. He advises beginners to buy second-hand machines and paint

Mr. Clarence A. Martin writes in the series on "The Making of a Country Home," and gives some general advice as to "The Main Features of the House." William L. Underwood tells how to make a water garden and how to keep it free from mosquitoes. T. W. Burgess describes the wonderful country home of Mr. E. C. Benedict at Greenwich, Conn., which is one of the favorite haunts of Ex-President Grover Cleveland. W.

C. Egan gives good practical directions "How to Make a Garden," and there are various pleasant suggestions for vacation-seekers and nature students at home.

FRANK LESLIE'S MONTHLY.

N the August Frank Leslie's there is a description of "The Birds of Farthest South," by C. E. Borchgrevink, the explorer and discoverer of the Antarctic Continent. The penguins are the most characteristic birds within the South Polar circle, and these are found in great numbers on land and on sea. The legs are placed so far back on the penguin that when the bird is walking it stands upright, and the wings are so rudimentary that they are more like flippers. When they wish to leave the water, they put on a great spurt of swimming speed, and then, with a mighty flapping of their wings, they rise two or three yards in the air. Mr. Borchgrevink shows some remarkable photographs of the populous penguin colonies of the Antarctic Continent, and some curious incidents in the birds' life. Their great enemy is the skua gull, which hangs around the desert islands, trying to steal the eggs and young ones. The penguins live on the edge of the ice-pack in winter time, and live off of fish and crustaceans, the flesh being so unutterably oily that a human being cannot stand it.

There is a brief sketch of Otis Skinner, the actor, by Franklin E. Fyles, who calls his subject the best elocutionist on the American stage, with the exception of Mrs. Le Moyne. The remainder of this number is devoted to fiction.

EVERYBODY'S MAGAZINE.

THE August number of Everybody's Magazine contains a description of the sheep-dog trials in the north of England, by A. R. Dugmore, which we have quoted from in another department. The magazine begins with a harvesting idyl in prose by Martha McCulch Williams, whose recent volume of nature studies, "Next to the Ground," has been so handsomely received.

Arthur E. Johnson tells of a welcome invention by the chief of the United States Weather Bureau, "A Summer-Time Stove." This curious contrivance turns in an instant air of the temperature of a hundred degrees to a temperature below freezing point, and Mr. Johnson thinks it promises to become a factor of no mean importance in furnishing not only comfort to humanity in general, but aid to the manufacturing world, where room temperature is an item in the protection of goods. Professor Moore calls the novel refrigerator a gravity cooler. In outward appearance it is a plain round cylinder, connected with the outside air by a pipe of generous diameter, and having a similar pipe extending from beneath. Mr. Johnson's account of the scientific principles involved is not very elaborate or convincing. "Place your hand in front of the discharge pipe near the floor and you can feel ice-cold air coming forth in a strong draught. An anemometer, a machine for measuring air, placed in front of this pipe announces that air is coming out at the rate of 200 cubic feet a minute. or 12,000 feet an hour. Turn a damper in the pipe which leads to the outer air, and the wheels of the anemometer immediately cease turning. This seems to prove that the air enters the machine from the top and goes through it of its own sheer weight, being made heavier as it is cooled."

Holman F. Day describes "The Day's Work of a New England Farmer," there is a dramatic story by Frank Norris, "A Deal in Wheat," and other summery contributions.

THE ATLANTIC MONTHLY.

FROM the August Atlantic Monthly we have selected the excellent travel sketch describing Pygmy life in Central Africa, by Mr. Samuel Phillips Verner, to quote from among the "Leading Articles of the Month."

An appreciation of Bret Harte by H. C. Merwin places that author very high among the literary artists America has produced. Mr. Merwin thinks Bret Harte would still have been a genius and great writer if gold had never been discovered in California. Mr. Merwin says that Bret Harte at his best had in the choice of words, the balance of his sentences, and the rhythm of his paragraphs, a very nearly perfect style. He was essentially an artist with the artistic incapacity to deal with abstract notions or general propositions. Merwin thinks that Hawthorne himself could not have conceived a purer character, or have told the story more delicately, than Bret Harte in "The Idyl of Red Gulch." The deficiency in Bret Harte's work was a certain limitation of creative power, which prevented Bret Harte, as it prevented Kipling, from writing a successful novel. Mr. Merwin thinks Bret Harte's one sustained effort, "Gabriel Conroy," is a nightmare.

In discussing "The Revival of Poetic Drama," Mr. Edmund Gosse thinks it is safe to say that since the days of Shakespeare we have not before seen an occasion upon which two dramatic poems of real and high literary merit, by the same author, have enjoyed runs and success at the same time upon the London stage. Mr. Gosse refers, of course, to the "Ulysses" and "Paola and Francesca" of Mr. Stephen Phillips. Mr. Gosse thinks the reason why poetic drama has always failed in England since the seventeenth century is that it remains faithful to the Elizabethan tradition. Accordingly he places his greatest hope for the newest revival of poetic drama in England in the fact that it is independent of the Elizabethan tradition. While he thinks Mr. Phillips "has been the victim of more injudicious praise than is often poured out upon young writers even in this crude and impetuous age," still he gives him credit for having produced already "one of those revivals of poetic drama which occur in our history three or four times in every century."

This August issue of the Atlantic refrains from discussions of heavy and serious topics. There is a vivid description of "The Moonshiners at Home," by Leonidas Hubbard, Jr., and contributions of fiction from Norman Duncan, Bettina von Hutton, Jack London, Arthur Colton, Alice Brown, and a breezy essay, "The Browning Tonic," by Martha B. Dunn.

THE FORUM.

In the first number of the Forum as a quarterly review the general character of the magazine is changed, while its former high standards are maintained, but the review and outlook features are more fully developed. In other words, the magazine is turned into what is called in the English and European reviews a "chronique," including not only a record of current events, but in most cases estimates of general tenden-

cies. There are nine departments, each conducted by a specialist, who writes a critical exposition of such events of the last three months as come within his own sphere. In the issue for July-September, Mr. Henry Litchfield West discusses American politics, Mr. A. Maurice Low foreign affairs, Mr. A. D. Noyes finance, Mr. Henry Harrison Suplee applied science, Mr. John Corbin the American drama, Mr. Frank Jewett Mather, Jr., literature, Prof. A. D. F. Hamlin architectural art, Mr. Ossian H. Lang educational events, and Dr. J. M. Rice, the editor of the magazine, educational research.

CHINESE EXCLUSION.

The first of the three special articles, so-called, which appear in this number, supplementary to the reviews of events, is on the subject of "Chinese Exclusion," and is signed by the Hon. Charles Denby, our former minister to China. Mr. Denby argues in favor of a continuation of our policy of exclusion; but holds that we should act openly and honorably in the matter, and not under cover of a strained interpretation of words. "We should declare that a certain number of students may come to this country, as well as a certain number of merchants, and a certain number of other classes if desirable, and the remainder should be excluded. Surveillance should be exercised over the persons so admitted in order that they might not become laborers. Our trade relations with China are promising, and they ought not to be disturbed by the enactment of unnecessary and unjust laws. A respectable Chinese merchant engaged in business in China, and desirous of doing business with the United States, should be encouraged to come to this country, and to buy supplies here. If we are to lose our trade with China, one of the main objects of acquiring the Philippines will be defeated."

The second special article in this number is contributed by Mr. Wolf von Schierbrand on "Germany as a World Power," and the third is an appreciation of the late Sir Walter Besant, by Prof. William P. Trent.

THE NORTH AMERICAN REVIEW.

N the opening article of the North American Review for July, Thomas A. Edison briefly describes the tests applied to his recently-perfected storage battery for motor cars. Mr. Edison declares that the battery has sustained and overcome the four very thorough tests applied to it, and that there is every prospect of the same result from the fifth and last test. Mr. Edison's own conception of the condition to be met by the storage battery is that it should be a perfectly reversible instrument, "receiving and giving out power like a dynamo motor, without any deterioration of the mechanism of conversion." Mr. Edison describes the run made by an automobile supplied with power from his storage battery in which a distance of sixty-two miles over country roads containing many grades, some as steep as twelve feet in a hundred, was covered by the vehicle, making at the end of the run 83 per cent. of the original speed, the average speed over the entire distance being 11 2-100 miles per hour. On a comparatively level country road, a little heavy from a recent rain, the same vehicle on one charge came to a stop at the eighty-fifth mile. Mr. Edison expresses the opinion that the automobile, aided by the new battery, will ultimately come within the reach of the man of moderate means. "With an initial outlay of \$700 and upward, the storage battery automobile can be used once a week at the cost of a fifty-cent charge, or twice for a dollar, and so on, the cost of use being met as it is incurred and so ceasing to be the bugbear that fixed charges must always be to the householder of moderate income." The fifth endurance test of the battery, the results of which have not yet been published, is the running of five different models of automobiles of various weights and construction over five thousand miles of country road at an average distance of one hundred miles per day.

AMERICAN SHIPBUILDING AND THE SHIPPING TRUST.

The inter-relation of two great recent developments in the industrial world,-the forming of the Atlantic steamship merger and the organization of the American shipbuilding trust,-is suggested in an article contributed to this number of the Review by Mr. Charles H. Cramp, of the famous firm of shipbuilders. Mr. Cramp expresses the belief that the direct influence of the Morgan steamship trust will be in the direction of stimulating American shipbuilding. He shows that the agreement with the Belfast shipyard of Harland & Wolff will by no means prevent the management of the trust from building some of their ships in the United States, but he hints at certain desired legislation on the part of our government to enable any American to build and operate ships under the American flag as favorably as under foreign flags.

THE GERMAN EMPEROR'S PERSONAL INFLUENCE.

Mr. Wolf von Schierbrand makes a rather savage attack upon Emperor William II., the autocrat of modern Germany. He asserts that the Kaiser's influence has been wonderful, not only in public life, "lowering the national standard of political thought and liberty," but also in German literary and art life. This writer condemns him especially for his war upon what is known as the "Secessionist" or "Realistic" movement in literature, represented by Hauptmann and Sudermann, and a corresponding movement in German art represented by Böcklin, Liebermann, Klinger, and others. The greatest injury, however, according to this writer, has resulted from the Kaiser's attempt to curb the freedom of the press and of periodical literature. "The practice of the courts all over Germany, from the lowest to the highest, has been, since the accession of William II., growingly and steadily illiberal and systematically inimical to the press. Honest expression of opinion, whenever it contravened the Kaiser's ideas and convictions, has been so severely and persistently punished that it may be said to be effectually muzzled."

OTHER ARTICLES.

Karl Blind writes on "The Prorogued Turkish Parliament;" Commissioner-General T. V. Powderly on "Immigration's Menace to the National Health;" Mr. M. W. Hazeltine on "Mr. Carnegie's New Book;" Mr. Vernon Lee on "The Economic Dependence of Women;" H. Cust, M.P., on "Cecil Rhodes;" Auditor H. A. Castle on "Defects and Abuses in Our Postal System," and Dr. Adolph Wagner on "The Public Debt of Prussia." Prof. Lewis M. Haupt, formerly a member of the Nicaragua Canal Commission, sets forth the advantages of Nicaragua as contrasted with the Panama route for a canal. Mr. John Handiboe's article on "Strikes and the Public Welfare" is reviewed in another department.

THE ARENA.

THE July number of the Arena opens with a symposium on "Why I am Opposed to Imperialism," by President George McA. Miller, Prof. Thomas E. Will, Mr. Bolton Hall, and Mr. Ernest Crosby. Among the reasons stated by these gentlemen for their opposition to the present policy of the United States Government are that it is an abandonment of a high national ideal; that it is a breaking of national faith; that it is an introduction of despotism; that it is a policy proved by history to be a failure; that it is based upon physical force; that it is founded on a false pride of race; that it is "steeped in cant and hypocrisy," and that it distracts our attention and our material resources from home problems.

WHY THE PACIFIC COAST FAVORS NICARAGUA.

Mr. Edward Berwick explains why the Pacific coast producer has all along favored the Nicaragua route for the canal as opposed to the Panama, even to the point of declaring for "Nicaragua or nothing." The wheat grower of California wishes to be put on an equal footing with his rival in the Argentine Republic, and prefers the Nicaragua route because of its availability for sailing vessels. Farmers' most perishable products, on the other hand, will suffer less from detention in tropical heat and damp by the Nicaragua route than by the Panama, while for all purposes of interstate commerce the nearness of Nicaragua commends it as the more desirable route.

THE ACTORS' CHURCH ALLIANCE.

Dr. George Wolf Shinn gives an account of the formation and objects of the Actors' Church Alliance, which has now established itself in four hundred cities in the United States and Canada, and counts a membership of over two thousand. The objects of this organization are to promote the best interests of the stage and the Church by seeking to produce on the part of each a just appreciation of the opportunities and responsibilities of the other, and to endeavor to unite the stage, the Church, and the general public in a mutual effort for the betterment of all. The Boston chapter has had receptions in theaters, lectures, essays, and discussions in halls, and smaller gatherings here and there. It has successfully carried through a benefit performance and a bazaar to raise funds, and has had a religious service once each month in some church, to which actors and their friends were especially invited. Both the Boston and New York chapters now possess headquarters of their own, and are engaging in active work.

OTHER ARTICLES.

Mr. William H. Morrell writes on "Evolution and Optimistic Politics," Mr. Adam Rosenberg on "Socialism in Ancient Israel," Mr. Marvin Dana on "The Pride of Life," Mr. William Leighton on "Whitman's Note of Democracy," and Mr. Eltweed Pomeroy on "The Present Political Outlook."

GUNTON'S MAGAZINE.

In the July number of Gunton's the editor attempts to make clear the real issue in the present coalstrike discussion in the following paragraphs:

"Whether the demand for an eight-hour day and an increase of 20 per cent. in wages is reasonable or unrea-

sonable really cuts no figure in this strike problem. If the employers had consented to the conference with the unions, it is altogether probable that the demands of the men might and would have been modified down to a thoroughly reasonable and economic basis. After the reply of the corporations, there was nothing for the laborers to do but accept the decision that they would not be permitted to participate in making the contract under which they would have to work or strike.

"In this state of facts, as developed by Commissioner of Labor Wright's investigation, it is clear that the corporations are responsible for the strike. All the inconvenience to the public is chargeable to the railroad managers, because their attitude left no other alternative for the men except unconditional surrender of all voice in determining their conditions."

FACTS ABOUT SOUTHERN CHILD LABOR.

Mr. Hayes Robbins, in a paper on "The New South's Rare Opportunity," estimates the number of children under fourteen years of age at work in the cotton mills of North and South Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, and Mississippi at 22,000. Eight or ten thousand of these children are believed to be under twelve, while the fact is well established that some children of nine, eight, and even six years are at work in Southern mills. In connection with these facts, we are reminded that fourteen years is nearly the average age under which factory labor is prohibited by the laws of most of our Northern States and of European countries where there has been any legislation on the subject.

THE NINETEENTH CENTURY.

In the Nineteenth Century for July, Sir Robert Anderson, writing on London "Hooliganism," maintains that magistrates should be empowered to deal with any lad between sixteen and twenty-one who habitually frequents the streets and highways and has no visible means of subsistence. By dealing with them he means that they should be sent to training ships. The most interesting thing in his paper is the statement which he makes as to the estimate of some American friends of his as to the number of murders which they expected would take place every year in London. After much discussion, they fixed an average of about 200. In reality, the average number is about 18.

BRITISH AND AMERICAN SHIPPING.

Mr. Benjamin Taylor writes a somewhat cheerful article upon this subject, maintaining that if British shipowners, shipbuilders, and railway companies wake up and brace themselves for the struggle, they have nothing to fear. He would pass a simple resolution through the House of Commons forbidding the sale or transfer by any firm of vessels which it is desirable to keep on the British register for possible use in war, and pass a short act re-imposing the old navigation laws, which would close the British register and coasting trade to foreign-built vessels. He also suggests that countervailing subsidies should be paid, and in other ways he would abandon the theory that the British shipowner is the natural enemy of mankind.

THE DEMAND FOR A WHITE AUSTRALIA.

The government resident on Thursday Island, the pearl-fishing station in the north of Australia, gives

some interesting particulars as to the influence likely to be exerted by Asia on Australia. He admits that the pearl-fields could not be worked without Asiatics, but at the same time he is a passionate advocate of a white Australia. This, he says, is the opinion not of the labor party alone, but it is the determination of nine-tenths of the present people of Australia. The southern Australian states will never consent, come what may, to the systematic introduction of colored labor into northern Australia.

UNEDUCATED BRITISH OFFICERS.

Maj.-Gen. Frank Russell declares that he thinks the great war now brought to a close will be noted in history as having brought about an entire revolution in the education and training of the officers of the British army. The report of the committee is a startling and a remarkable document. He examines its recommendations in detail, approving of them in the main, and concludes his paper by calling attention to the striking phenomenon that, although the committee examined no fewer than seventy-two witnesses, some of them more than once and many of them at great length, they never asked Lord Wolseley to attend and give them the benefit of his advice and unrivaled experience. The unaccountable omission detracts very much from the value of the report as a whole.

PROPHECIES OF DISRAELI.

Mr. Walter Sichel claims that no one ever showed greater prescience as to the future of Great Britain than Disraeli. He quotes many passages from his speeches in proof of this; among others, as far back as 1856 he pointed out that American expansion, so far from being injurious to England, contributed to the wealth of England more than it increased the power of the United States. In 1872, he made the following statement as to the conditions upon which, in his opinion, self-government should have been conceded to the colonies. The passage is a remarkable one, and well worth quoting:

"It ought to have been accompanied by an imperial tariff, by securities for the people of England for the enjoyment of the unappropriated lands which belonged to the sovereign as their trustee, and by a military code which should have precisely defined the means and the responsibilities by which the colonies should be defended, and by which, if necessary, this country should call for aid from the colonies themselves. It ought further to have been accompanied by the institution of some representative council in the metropolis, which would have brought the colonies into constant and continuous relations with the home government."

OTHER ARTICLES.

Mr. W. H. Ford comes to the rescue of the censor of plays, and maintains that one scene at least in "Monna Vanna" is quite inadmissible on the English stage. The late Chief Justice of Hyderabad writes on "The Islamic Libraries," and Mrs. Aria discourses on the practice of going to the play in order to display your dresses and meet your friends. Miss G. E. Troutbeck, in an article entitled "A Forerunner of St. Francis of Assisi," revives the almost forgotten memory of Abbot Joachim of Flora, who was born in Calabria in the year 1132.

THE FORTNIGHTLY REVIEW.

I N the Fortnightly Review, Mr. Francis Gribble gives a very vivid and picturesque account of

Alexandre Dumas. He says:

"One may speak of him, for instance, as a dissolute Sir Walter Scott, a magnified non-natural George Augustus Sala, a literary Baron Grant, a Henri Mürger with a talent for getting on, but the analogies do not help one very far. Dumas was all these things, but he was a good many other things as well. His life is a real drama which loses none of its significance through the lapse of time. Here, at least, we have the true story of a Titanic conflict. On the one hand, we have the man of genius proudly defying all the conventional decencies of the social order, and trusting to genius, unsupported by any force of character, to pull him through; on the other hand, we have the patient, untiring social forces biding their time and taking their terrible revenge. The collapse has been compared to the breaking up of an empire; and the story is like the story of Napoleon, transferred to the field of literary and social life."

MAGERSFONTEIN.

Mr. Perceval Landon tells the story of the defeat of the Highlanders at Magersfontein, putting forward for the first time the unexampled series of mishaps which led to their destruction. The first mishap was the overcharged electricity of the atmosphere, which found expression as soon as the march began in a tremendous thunderstorm which affected the nerves of every man in the force. The brigade, from Wauchope downward, started with a premonition of defeat. When, drenched to the skin, the Black Watch tore themselves through clinging thorns and sinewy branches by main force, a continuous cataract of magazine fire smote them down. When they recoiled, shattered beneath the sudden blow, the quick African dawn rose full upon the scene of failure, enabling the Boers to take aim. At that moment of confusion the brigade found themselves practically without officers, for the new kit in which the officers were dressed rendered them undistinguishable from their men. On this leaderless force lying prone on the veldt the sun arose in a cloudless sky, and the thermometers registered 108 in the shade. A misunderstood operation, ordered by Colonel Hughes-Hallett, was taken as a signal for a general retirement, and the brigade-shaken, broken, decimated-retreated over the coverless zone swept by the Boer fire.

THE PROSPECT IN TURKEY.

A writer calling himself A. Rustem Bey de Bilinski declares that Abdul Hamid has made his unfortunate empire a veritable hell on earth, and this he has done of resolute purpose, displaying great genius in the systematic efforts in which he has struck poison into every branch of national activity. Believing that prosperity would lead to discontent, he pursues a policy of devastation and desolation. His precautions against assassination are complete. The Young Turks are powerless for some years to come, the Christian races will not rise, and, therefore, as long as Abdul Hamid reigns there is not much prospect that the Eastern Question will be raised. If, however, he were to die, the dogs of war would be unloosed, and a general conflagration might ensue. If his successor adopted a policy of reform and progress, Great Britain might come to the rescue, and the Sultan might make himself the center of a confederation of which his former Christian subjects, now completely enfranchised, would form the outer circle and join hands to resist Europe.

SCIENCE AND RELIGION.

Mr. W. H. Mallock gives the fourth instalment of his papers on "Science and Religion at the Dawn of the Twentieth Century." This leads him to the following conclusion:

"Science, then, in the principles from which it starts, and in the conclusion to which it leads, is essentially non-religious. It not only fails to support the essential doctrines of religion, but, as is every day becoming more apparent, it excludes them. If, then, we accept, as all reasonable people do accept, the facts which science teaches, are we, as reasonable people, bound to reject religion? I shall show in the next article that we are not, and why we are not."

THE CONTEMPORARY REVIEW.

N the Contemporary Review for July, Mr. J. B. Johnston contributes a very detailed and interesting summary of the evidence against the theory of natural selection. Geological and palæontological evidence, he says, is every day tending to weaken the Darwinian theory. The earth is now proved to be not so old as was believed, and the enormous periods of time demanded by pure natural selectionists can no longer be granted. Recent discoveries have brought to light many animals in the oldest strata which were quite as highly developed as their posterity in new strata. Mr. Johnston gives a list of such cases, and concludes that while natural selection has played some part in the development of life, it is the part of the eliminator much more than that of the creator. Palæontology furnishes a vast body of proof that a type appears perfect, or almost perfect, from the first, or at least the type's acme is reached very early in its history.

Colonel Maude writes upon "The Education of Officers." There is a paper by Mr. G. H. Powell on "The Mind of America." Miss Hannah Lynch has one of her brilliantly-worded articles upon "Rebel Catalonia." There is also a paper on the somewhat unprofitable subject of "Immortality" by Emma Marie Caillard.

THE WESTMINSTER REVIEW.

HE Westminster Review for July contains a very instructive paper by Mr. Hubert Reade entitled "Empire as Made in Germany." It was written before peace was signed in South Africa, Mr. Reade's purpose being to show the careful and moderate methods of Bismarck in founding the German Empire as contrasted with the pretences of British imperialists. Bismarck succeeded in roping in the German states into the new empire owing to his moderation and his care to save their amour propre. He knew how fatal it would be to Prussia to have subordinate to it a large body of citizens hankering after a vanished past. A tactless statesman would in 1866 have annexed Bohemia, and have filled the palaces of Vienna with kings in exile, making the Prussian flag the emblem of subjection. But Bismarck was extremely moderate; in the art of saving appearances he could have given lessons to the Dowager Empress of China. In the constitution of the German Empire he was equally careful, keeping up the fiction of independence everywhere. The South German states closed the war with France by separate

treaties of peace; the federal states were all to be represented by special envoys at the King's coronation. In short, Bismarck recognized the superiority of diplomacy over edicts in settling international questions, and built up the German Empire with treaties, not with proclamations. If Bismarck had been English prime minister, he would not have refused to treat with President Krüger. He would not have troubled, so long as every Boer was effectively subject to England, to force upon him the recognition of this subjection at every turn. It would have mattered little, while Transvaal and Free State representatives sat in the Federal Parliament of South Africa, whether these states, like the Hanseatic cities, were officially styled republics. He would not have lost a kingdom for the color of an emblem.

Mr. J. G. Godard continues his paper on "Imperialism: Its Spirit and Tendencies." There is an article on the Indian Famine Commission.

THE NATIONAL REVIEW.

HE National Review for July contains an important article by Mr. Arnold White upon "The Food of the Lower Deck-and a Message from Kiel," which is noticed elsewhere, and a very interesting article, Sir Horace Rumbold's "Recollection of a Diplomatist," full of good stories about such well-known men as Sir Robert Morier, Sir Harry Elliot, Sir Hamilton Seymour, and less great names in the British diplomatic service. Captain Mahan contributes some "Considerations Governing the Disposition of Navies," and Admiral Fremantle discourses upon "Mercantile Cruisers and Commerce Protection." Mr. Whitmore, M. P., writes pleasantly and genially concerning the recently acquired London parks, such as Clissold Park, and Waterloo, Brockwell, and Ravenscourt parks, which are old-fashioned suburban gardens rather than city parks.

Mr. W. J. Courthope makes the following suggestion as to the first step being taken toward imperial federation:

"What would be the objection to having a representative of each colonial government for the time being as a member of a permanent council? The council must necessarily be composed of the executive powers in each part of the empire, but the principle of representation would be duly observed, and it would seem easy to make a body so composed part of the constitution, by converting it into a committee of the privy council. As the council would in itself, to begin with, have neither executive nor legislative functions, there could be no fear of the federal authority attempting to enforce obedience to the central will upon any reluctant member of the voluntary association."

The Earl of Ronaldshay describes a journey taken through Baloochistan and eastern Persia.

THE MONTHLY REVIEW.

NE of the most interesting articles in the Monthly Review is Mr. Arthur Morrison's illustrated paper on the "Painters of Japan."

The editor, in his opening paper on "Trade and the New World," recommends the adoption of a policy partly protective and partly aggressive, but he admits that for preliminary work necessary to lay the foundations of his policy it would be futile to look either to the government now in power or to any alternative government at present conceivable. It is, therefore, hardly worth discussing from the point of view of practical politics.

Mr. Worsfold continues his defence of Sir Charles Warren, dealing with the much-disputed question as to who was responsible for the disaster at Spion Kop. Mr. J. H. Rose's paper, entitled "Our Anti-National Party in the Great War," is written from the point of view of a man who thinks that the more completely British foreign policy is examined in the light of contemporary records the better it comes out. He quotes Dr. Gardiner as agreeing with him in this matter, for, said the eminent historian, "It always does; it always does."

Mr. W. B. Yeats contributes an Irish poem which deals with the fate of two lovers, Baile and Aillinn. The Master of Love, wishing them to be happy in his own land among the dead, told to each the story of the other's death, so that their hearts were broken and they died.

There is a curious article entitled "Si Jeunesse Voulait," by Mrs. Hugh Bell, a sermonette to young people on the conduct of life. We have dealt at length elsewhere with Mr. William Archer's plea for national theaters.

BLACKWOOD'S MAGAZINE.

"On the Heels of De Wet." The writer thinks that whether or not De Wet was the best of the Boer generals, he certainly owed a great deal to good luck. The culpable stupidity of his pursuers often saved him, and even when surrounded by the best leaders and best men, chance has stood by him. Luck, however, generally seemed to have come in the form of what the writer calls "effete British leaders;" and he gives an amusing dialogue to illustrate the stupid timidity with which the British senior officers hampered and interfered with their enterprising subordinates.

There is a very interesting anonymous article on "Celestial Photography," in which the writer points out the uses and drawbacks of photography as used in astronomy. The writer says that even with perfect clockwork, human supervision is necessary in photographing the sky, as owing to changes in the atmosphere the stars change their positions by refraction. As they sink toward the horizon the refraction increases. Photography is not very useful when fine detail is wanted, as on all but two or three nights of the year the star-image dances and quivers in the telescope, and the sensitized plate reproduces its aberrations. Photography is especially valuable in the work of measurement, which the writer insists is a much more important work than mere searching for new celestial objects. One of the great drawbacks of photography is that, owing to the coarseness of the silver particles, the picture will only bear a small magnification-some twenty diameters-after which it begins to show single grains. Also the plate is too faithful, and records everything whether wanted or not. It is in observing faint sources of light that photography is supreme. The Lick telescope, when used in combination with photography, discovered some 120,000 new nebulæ, where only 6,000 had been discovered by using the telescope alone.

THE CONTINENTAL REVIEWS.

REVUE DES DEUX MONDES.

'HE terrible events of 1871 are beginning to be regarded in France as ancient history, and accordingly much is being published which throws a strong light on many events which at the time appeared utterly mysterious and incomprehensible. The place of honor in the first June number of the Revue des Duex Mondes is given to an article entitled "The Biarritz Interview," written (wherein lies its special interest) by M. Ollivier, the French statesman who has remained notorious as having used in 1870 the unfortunate phrase, "The French army is absolutely ready to go into action, even to the last button of the last gaiter." Here, apparently for the first time, is told from the French point of view the inner story of the negotiations which preceded the Schleswig-Holstein struggle, and students of modern history will find much that is valuable in these pages. At the present moment one reads with melancholy interest the vivid description of how great a part deadly disease played in the life-story of Napoleon III. During the last seven years of the empire the emperor was constantly ill; but the fact was more or less hidden from those around him, although his ministers were, of course, aware that often the extremity of pain which he was enduring compelled him to leave the councils over which he used to preside with the greatest regularity and intelligence. M. Ollivier, in the second number, continues his diplomatic and political confessions with a long account of the first Hohenzollern candidature-in other words, the history of how the present King of Roumania, a prince of the house of Hohenzollern, became sovereign of the eastern state over which he still reigns, and to which the heir is his nephew, equally allied by marriage to the British sovereign. M. Ollivier is apparently of opinion that Bismarck hoped to plant out cadets of the Royal Prussian family all over Europe, and that, emboldened by the success of this attempt in Roumania, he plotted the disastrous Hohenzollern candidature to the throne of Spain, which practically led to the outbreak of the Franco-Prussian War.

THE CENTENARY OF COMTE.

Auguste Comte, one of the comparatively very few thinkers who may be said to have founded a new religion, was born a hundred years ago, and his centenary has inspired M. Brunetière, the distinguished French philosopher and critic, to write a courteous analysis of Comte's theories, writings, and general opinions on the intellect of some thinkers who may be said to have been even greater than himself. He points out that Comte had a great respect for all that had gone before, in this matter differing from any of his disciples, who seem far more anxious to destroy than to preserve the edifices built up in the course of ages.

OTHER ARTICLES.

Other articles include a short scientific summary of the world's volcanic eruptions, by M. Dastre; a detailed account of the battle of Oudenarde, by the Comte d'Haussonville; and yet another section of M. Lenthério's picturesque and yet most detailed description of the northern coast-lines and seaport towns of France.

NOUVELLE REVUE.

S usual the Nouvelle Revue for June is composed of a very great number of short articles, of which perhaps the best is that, by M. Buret, entitled "The Rights of War, and the Rights of the Wounded." Next May, at St. Petersburg, will take place a great international congress of Red Cross societies. The last was held at Vienna in 1898, at a moment when none foresaw the grievous struggle which has just come to an end. It is said on the Continent that, in view of recent events in South Africa, certain articles of the Geneva Convention will be there revised. This will be more necessary owing to the fact that the famous convention omitted to deal both with the captive wounded, and with the case of prisoners of war. During the Franco-Prussian War the German military authorities complained bitterly that certain articles of the convention made it easy for active combatants to pose when convenient as doctors and ambulance men, and the same complaint was made in Great Britain apropos of the many Russian, Dutch, and American ambulances which attempted to make their way into the Boer lines.

THE MARTINIQUE DISASTER.

The Martinique disaster is the subject of a paper by M. Desmarest, who gives some little-known details concerning the doomed town of St. Pierre. He points out that many of the houses were made of wood, and so caught fire almost at once. The one survivor, a negro, happened to be confined in an underground prison, and so escaped. It is clear that the island had had ample warning, for during the last hundred years several terrible earthquakes took place, that of 1830 completely destroying Fort de France. Many ancient prophecies foretelling the awful eruption of this spring were current in the island, but even the more superstitious inhabitants fully believed that this would not occur for at least another thousand years.

THE JAPANESE WORKMAN.

According to M. Dumoret, the Japanese workman is far more pleasantly situated than his European brother. In the country of flowers, strikes are absolutely unknown, for as yet trade unionism has made no way in the East. Every man makes the best bargain he can for himself, and, as a rule, for a time exceeding three years. A bad element in the working life in Japan is the existence of a professional intermediary who acts as go-between between men and masters, and who obtains a commission from both sides. Yet another regrettable fact is the immense number of children employed in the various factories. On the other hand, every house of business in Japan is regularly inspected by a government official, and as it is the custom to provide food for workers inside factories and workshops, this also has to be inspected and of good quality. The hours are very long, only one hour being allowed for meals during the whole day. Japan has long had something very like the British Employers' Liability Act in force, and the sick worker has a right to the best of hospital treatment. The Japanese, as America has discovered to her cost, is a first-rate emigrant, and soon becomes a formidable competitor to the native-born workman; for one thing, the Jap artisan is very sober, and lives mainly on rice and fish. In Japan great resentment is felt as

to the fact that both in America and in Australia the Japanese are regarded as belonging to the same strata of humanity as do the Chinese. The Japs consider themselves, and justly so, very superior to the other yellow races, and would like to feel that they were welcome in those new countries where good workmen are scarce.

REVUE DE PARIS.

THE June numbers of the Revue de Paris are exceedingly good. We have noticed elsewhere M. Aulard's account of the Legion of Honor.

THE COST OF THE BOER WAR.

M. Viallate offers a careful analysis of the effect on British finance of the South African war. The French writer has long made a study of the British financial system and of British taxation, and he points out that there was practically no provision made for such a war as that which has just been concluded. When, in the October of 1899, the ministers were obliged to go to the country for money, they did so feeling certain that a comparatively small sum would suffice to cover the cost of the then small expedition to South Africa. Three months later, however, Parliament had again to be asked for money; and more than a year later,-that is, when the budget of 1901 had to be presented to the country,—the Chancellor of the Exchequer was compelled to admit that the war was in no sense a small war; but, in point of view of finances, a very great war. In two years and a half the war, which was at first spoken of as a trifling matter, had cost the country more than twice the immense sum spent over the Crimean War. The French writer does not consider that with the end of the war will come an end of the supplementary expenses connected with the late struggle; he points out that even the Liberal Imperialists are extremely desirous of promoting costly army reforms, and of adding yet further to the navy; and he says that had it not been for the death duties imposed by Sir William Harcourt in 1894, Sir Michael Hicks-Beach would have had to discover new sources of taxation, and, even as it is, he believes that soon British free trade will be but a name.

THE RUIN OF A CITY.

M. Charléty contributes a striking historical article of the kind French writers so delight in. In it he describes the ruin of the one-time prosperous medieval city of Lyons during the reign of Louis XIV. The story is a curious one, and shows clearly why the Revolution found so many ardent adherents in the famous silk-making town. Unfortunately, Lyons was known to be a wealthy city; accordingly, whenever the Sun King went to war, built a palace, or led a campaign against heresy, he immediately taxed the unfortunate townspeople as heavily as possible. Even in those days there was a great dislike to direct taxation; accordingly, the new tax was not called a tax, but by some other name. Office-holders were compelled to buy in their offices; the town had certain rights, and it was asked to pay for the privilege of keeping them. Then the revocation of the Edict of Nantes proved a terrible blow to the silk industry. When the municipality begged leave to light up the streets, the king said he would allow this to be done if his government was given, as it were, the job. The townspeople were informed that they must pay a huge sum, but that in exchange the town would be thoroughly well lighted; the sum was

paid, but only a thousand lamps were provided. And this was but one example out of many. At last the industry by which the town lived was attacked,-that is, it was heavily taxed. Every weaver had to pay for the right of working his loom; and so, little by little, came ruin, and in 1715 the whole town became bank-The great manufacturers,-for even in those days there were great manufacturers,-closed their manufactories, their workpeople emigrated or became beggars on the high roads, and the population dwindled. The facts concerning this extraordinary tragedy-for tragedy it was-have been carefully gathered together by M. Charléty after prolonged study of the archives of the town of Lyons, and they should be carefully studied by all those who wish to know why France parted with so little struggle from her monarchical system.

NAPOLEON AND THE POPULAR DRAMA.

That many-sided genius, Napoleon I., is still ever providing entertaining copy. M. Albert describes the great soldier's delight in the drama. He believed that the theater has a great influence on popular imagination, accordingly he greatly encouraged all those actors and actresses who made a point of playing patriotic plays. He did not care for literary comedy. To give an example: he was quite indifferent to Molière; but he delighted in the cheap drama,—that is, in those plays which celebrated his victories, and which predicted his future triumphs.

THE SHIPPING COMBINE.

Under the name of "The Ocean Trust," M. de Rousiers attempts to give his French readers an account of the great shipping combine. He declares that in England the fact has escaped most people that the shipping combine is really intimately associated with the great 'American railway systems, and he attempts to analyze the effect of the combine on any future European war.

THE SPANISH MONARCHY.

Spain is of more importance to France than she is to any other European country. Many patriotic Frenchmen hope that the day will come when the most fertile and most ill-governed of European countries will become French soil. Accordingly, the course of the Spanish monarchy is closely watched and criticised in France. M. Bérard gives a sad account of the relations existing between the Spanish court and the Spanish people. Madrid, where the young King has lived most of his life, is absolutely the capital suited to an autocratic monarch. The stately city is far from the commercial centers of Spain, and during many centuries the great Spanish empire was governed from Madrid. Now, however, Spain, shorn of her colonies, is less willing to take her orders from Madrid. Even the country clergy have no love for the young king and his mother; and were it not for the strong personal support of the Pope, they would find in each country priest a more or less disguised enemy. M. Bérard gives a curious account of how great a part the colonies played in the life of the modern Spaniard. Apparently the Zollverein theory was in full force; a Spanish colony was practically compelled to deal with Spain only; even absolutely foreign produce reached each Spanish colony via a Spanish port. During the last four years, thanks to the intervention of the United States, the colonial source of revenue has practically come to an end, and this has disorganized the whole of Spanish trade. From one

point of view only has Spain benefited by the loss of her colonies. In the old days a constant tide of emigration of the country's strongest and healthiest sons was ever set toward "Greater Spain;" now, however, the Spaniard stops at home, and accordingly prosperity has come back to many a village and townlet, to say nothing of certain seaport towns quickly becoming centers of activity.

LA REVUE.

In La Revue for June the interest, as usual, is highly varied. Count Tolstoy's reflections on education are noticed elsewhere.

DUELLING.

M. Emile Faguet, of the French Academy, discusses duelling. French duels, he says, become rarer and rarer, and are seldom fatal, one great reason for which is the excellence of the French seconds. Many Russian, Austrian, and Italian duels, however, are still fatal.

Therefore M. Faguet believes in the usefulness of the recent "Ligue contre le Duel" in France. He has joined himself, and obtained the expected reward—being called a coward. The objects of the league are "to preach everywhere the stupidness of the institution, and afterward obtain legislation."

As punishments for duellists, he suggests depriving them of their rights of citizenship and a little prison—both for conqueror and conquered. The provoker of the duel shall not escape, nor le provoqué. As for the seconds, they are accessories; make it dangerous and difficult to be a second, and you strike a fatal blow at duelling.

But M. Faguet would not entirely abolish all duels, only "tous les petits duels bêtes," and all futile duels; he would allow them for "very grave causes, for those matters which no one would willingly bring before the courts, and which it would be undesirable to have so brought forward."

THE PSYCHOLOGY OF LYING.

After reading the article by M. Camille Mélinand on this subject, one realizes as never before that all men (and all women and children) are liars; and that in our own days it is extraordinarily difficult to be otherwise. For M. Mélinand would class as mensonges any word or act (negative or positive) which caused another either to be ignorant of anything, or to get the slightest erroneous impression. Extremely sincere people are often extremely blunt and unpopular, but M. Mélinand thinks this difficulty can be overcome. All suppression is a form of lying,—negative lying. Politeness forbids our saying what we think; modesty and reserve make us conceal our feelings or assume indifference when we are acutely anxious,—all is lying.

The following classification of lying is interesting. There is first lying by making up something entirely. This is the only kind of lie universally so-called,—a real out-and-out lie. It is also the most dangerous kind, and thus the rarest. Lying may also be done simply by suppression of something, or by exaggeration, or by embroidering facts, the most common form of all.

As for the motives which tempt to lying, cowardice is far the commonest. We are not brave enough to face the natural consequences of our conduct. Passion is responsible for an indefinite number of lies, hatred and detraction in particular. And as for love, lovers lie endlessly. Party spirit, the passion for money and

for power and success, are also all prolific fathers of

But, although rarely, temptation to lie comes through kindness, charity, and self-sacrifice.

And yet M. Mélinand considers it possible to be absolutely truthful, never to lie in any of the senses in which he uses the word. In children lying should be more severely punished than any other fault.

OTHER ARTICLES.

Many of the other articles are excellent. Carmen Sylva writes idealistically of the nobleness of woman, an article refreshing by its "Excelsior" spirit. M. Novicow writes of the alleged superiority of the Anglo-Saxons, an article by no means always just. Mr. J. A. Pease and Sir Charles Dilke write of slavery in English lands, chiefly Zanzibar and other parts of Africa. M. Henry Bérenger greatly admires "Monna Vanna."

THE GERMAN MAGAZINES.

HE June number of the Socialistische Monatshefte deals almost entirely with the great problem of strikes. The opening paper is by Edouard Anseele, of Ghent, and tells the story of the fight for universal suffrage in Belgium. Strikes have played an important part in the struggle, which, although not yet quite successful, will be so, he says, in the course of a year or so. Edward Bernstein, of Berlin, continues the subject, going more into the details of that particular political strike. The strike problem in Sweden is dealt with by Hjalmar Brunting, of Stockholm, who rejoices in the great victory of the workmen when last on strike. This appears to have been the first general strike the country has experienced. Some 116,000 workmen "came out," and the town became paralyzed in consequence. No electric cars, no omnibuses, no cabs, no vehicles of any sort could run, all factories and warehouses being at a standstill. All this was effected by careful organization for over fifteen years.

An interesting article upon the language question in Bohemia is contributed by Leo Winter, of Prague.

In the Deutsche Revue, Lady Hely Hutchinson describes some of the good work done by women in South Africa during the war. As wife of the governor, she had naturally many opportunities of coming into personal touch with those who were engaged in work for the sick and fighting soldiers. After describing many little acts of kindness for which there can be no reward save that coming from their performance, Lady Hutchinson protests against those women who went up to the battlefields, not to assist, but to see what could be seen. In Cape Town she says that for eighteen months a band of devoted ladies met in a bare room, and every day from ten to four prepared comforts for "Tommy." The nurses naturally come in for a special word of praise.

A German diplomatist writes upon the value of England to Germany. He says that, according to the German newspapers, there is absolutely no value, but those who reflect and study the question are bound to admit that there is a great deal. England's action in 1848, 1864, 1870-71, in the Samoan question, and in the stopping of German ships in African waters, has excited a bitter feeling against her; but in the diplomatist's opinion, it in no way excuses the opposition to everything English which has been going on in Germany during the last three years. England's chief use, however, seems to be to keep the balance even in European politics.

THE NEW BOOKS.

NOTES ON RECENT AMERICAN PUBLICATIONS.

SUMMER READING ABOUT NATURE.

"Nature Portraits" (Doubleday, Page & Co.) is a portfolio of studies with pen and camera of American wild birds, animals, fishes, and insects. There are fifteen large plates and many smaller illustrations by the most skillful nature photographers, among whom Mr. A. Radelyffe Dugmore and Mr. W. E. Carlin easily rank as experts. The accompanying text is by Professor Bailey, the editor of Country Life in America, and is written in his usually happy vein. The work, as a whole, represents the high-water mark of American achievement in the interpretation and presentation of animal life.

The "American Sportsman's Library," edited by Caspar Whitney (Macmillan), is an unusually attractive series of books, and will interest not only the amateur sportsman, but every American nature-lover, whether he be a devotee of rod and gun, or not. The volume on "The Deer Family," written by President Roosevelt, T. S. Van Dyke, D. G. Elliot, and A. J. Stone, appeals more especially, perhaps, to the dweller in northern latitudes, where the animals described in this volume have their habitat. President Roosevelt describes the various species of North American deer and antelope, with which he has for many years been familiar through his expeditions in the West, especially in the Rocky Mountain region. Mr. Van Dyke contributes sketches of the deer and elk of the Pacific coast. The caribou is described by Dr. Elliot, and the moose by Mr. Stone. In a volume on "Upland Game Birds" there are excellent descriptions of various varieties of quail, partridge, grouse, ptarmigan, turkey, woodcock, plover, and crane, with a special chapter on the quail and grouse of the Pacific coast. These chapters, written by Mr. Edwyn Sandys and Mr. T. S. Van Dyke, not only give accurate descriptions of the birds considered, but add full information regarding the regions to which they are native, and all other matters that the hunter needs to know relating to the birds and their habits. A volume to which the late Dean Sage and Messrs. C. H. Townsend, H. M. Smith, and William C. Harris have contributed is devoted entirely to "Salmon and Trout." The book is full of practical suggestions to anglers about the casting and working of flies, selection of tackle, and all the approved methods of fishing for these "gamest" of American fish.

For a comprehensive account of all the species of fish found in America north of the equator, we take pleasure in referring the reader to the new volume on "American Food and Game Fishes," by President David Starr Jordan, of Stanford University, and Dr. Barton W. Evermann, of the United States Fish Commission (Doubleday, Page & Co.). While this book is the work of eminent specialists, its aim is to furnish information to the multitude, and it may be truly described as a "popular" work. The book takes for granted on the part of the reader, as the introduction states, "a knowledge of ordinary English as used by Americans of fairly good education, and a willingness to make an honest effort to find out more about the food and game fishes

of our country." The book is technical only so far as is necessary to enable its readers easily and readily to identify any American fish that is used as food or game. Two sizes of type have been used in printing the book, the smaller size for those who would study fishes with specimens in hand, and the larger for those who read about fishes, whether the fishes themselves are present or not. The book also gives an account of the geographic distribution, habits, life-histories, and commercial and food value of fishes, together with many points of interest to the angler. Many photographs of live fishes were taken for this work by Mr. A. Radelyffe Dugmore, and the plates made from these photographs greatly add to the value and attractiveness of the book.

Another book that has special attractions for anglers and naturalists is "The Brook Book," by Mrs. Mary Rogers Miller (Doubleday, Page & Co.). This is an interesting study of the various activities of brook existence throughout the four seasons of the year. It is a presentation not only of the life of the brook itself, but of its manifold accompaniments and of the varied forms of nature with which the brook's rise and progress is

associated.

In a little work entitled "Among the Waterfowl" (Doubleday, Page & Co.), Mr. Herbert K. Job gives an account of many of the waterfowl found in the Northern and Central States of the Union, accompanied by numerous photographs from nature, most of which were secured by the author himself. The whole influence of Mr. Job's book is to discourage the shooting of living birds, and to substitute as a pastime the practice of "hunting with a camera." Mr. Job's pictures are remarkably successful, and the enthusiastic amateur will be tempted to make some similar efforts on his own account.

Mrs. Martha McCulloch-Williams' "Next to the Ground" (McClure, Phillips & Co.) is a delightful series of chronicles of country life, including not a few suggestions of curious and out-of-the-way information, all of which is related in the most entertaining fashion. If we cannot locate precisely the American farm which Mrs. Williams describes, and where all the experiences of her book took place, we are at least assured by the writer that it was a Southern countryside somewhere between the Alleghanies and the Mississippi, nearly midway between the mountains and the river. The things that Mrs. Williams writes about are every-day happenings about the farm, but seldom have they been recounted in so vivacious a record.

There is a further revelation of boy-and-girl life on the farm in a little book entitled "The Travels of a Barnacle," by Mrs. James Edwin Morris (New York: The Abbey Press). The main purpose of the book, however, is to present a series of studies of sea life, for which materials were gathered by Mrs. Morris in the course of observation tours in a glass-bottomed boat in the Bay of Avalon, off the coast of California. Besides these studies of the crab family and their neighbors, there is a chapter on "A Day With the Birds," and one on "Life in a Marsh."

Among the new books that appeal to the amateur gardener, one of the most exhaustive is "The American Horticultural Manual," Part I., by Prof. J. L. Budd, of the Iowa State College of Agriculture, assisted by Prof. N. E. Hansen, of the South Dakota Agricultural College (New York: John Wiley & Sons). This work comprises a full statement of the leading principles and practices connected with the propagation, culture, and improvement of fruits, nuts, ornamental trees, shrubs, and plants. It is illustrated by more than one hundred figures and explanatory designs.

Of English gardening lore there is a full supply in John Lane's numerous publications adapted particularly to the wants of English country gentlemen, the latest of which is entitled "In My Vicarage Garden and Elsewhere," by the Rev. Henry N. Ellacombe.

"Content in a Garden" is the title of a beautifully printed volume of essays and botanical studies by Candace Wheeler (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). The marginal decorations of the volume are supplied by Dora Wheeler Keith. In the main the book is a pleasant description of a garden in the Catskill Mountains, where the writer delights to attempt the interpretation of the thoughts and feelings which she fancifully attributes to all her flowers.

Mr. James H. Emerton indulges in the fond hope that his book on "The Common Spiders of the United States" (Ginn & Co.) will help to lessen the popular prejudice against spiders,—and lead the public into some such acquaintance with these insects as is now enjoyed by many students with birds and butterflies. Mr. Emerton states that in the neighborhood of any city in this country there are at least three or four hundred species of spiders, and that thus far there have been very few collections made. Mr. Emerton describes in this book only those species that are well known and have been described before. He omits all rare and doubtful species. The book is illustrated from drawings and photographs made by the author, who has been an enthusiastic collector for many years.

Two excellent school readers, which will do much to encourage nature study in this country have recently come to hand—"Seaside and Wayside," No. 3, by Julia McNair Wright (Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.), and "Trees in Prose and Poetry," by Gertrude L. Stone and M. Grace Fickett (Ginn & Co.).

BOOKS OF TRAVEL AND DESCRIPTION.

For a full and up-to-date account of the extension of Russia's influence in northern Asia we are indebted to Prof. George Frederick Wright, of Oberlin College, whose two-volume work on "Asiatic Russia" has just appeared (McClure, Phillips & Co.). An article by Professor Wright, on "The Russian Problem in Manchuria," appeared in the REVIEW of REVIEWS for July, 1901, and formed an important contribution to our knowledge of present-day conditions in the far East

from the American point of view. As Dr. Wright is a geologist, it was natural that in the extended journey which he made through the region described two years ago he should have an eye primarily for the physical conditions of the country. Dr. Wright is, however, a student of people as well as of rocks and water-courses, and his views of the modern development of this wonderful land are extremely interesting to the sociologist. As our readers may have gathered from Dr. Wright's REVIEW article, to which reference has already been made, his predilections toward the Russian administration are favorable rather than otherwise. His grounds for this belief are well set forth in his chapters on social, economic, and political conditions in the present volume. While his account of the various features of the Russian occupation of Siberia is full of information, much of which has never before been accessible to American readers, there are also interesting chapters on the geological history, the climate, and the flora and fauna of the land. Altogether these two volumes sum up the impressions of an exceptionally shrewd observer of political and social conditions as affected by physical environment.

"Highways and Byways in Hertfordshire," by Herbert W. Tompkins (Macmillan), is a volume well packed with minute information about a region of England comparatively little known to the traveler from other lands. Like other books in the same series to which we have made allusion from time to time in these pages, this new volume is a combination of the better class of guide-books, with a condensation of local history of the highest order. We can hardly imagine the time when such books will be written about any portion of the United States; but in a country like England, rich in historical associations, they fill a distinct niche. The illustrations for the present volume were furnished by Mr. Frederick L. Griggs.

"The World's Shrine" is the title chosen by Virginia W. Johnson for her sketch of Lake Como (New York: A. S. Barnes & Co.). In her description of this beautiful Italian lake the writer traces some of its historical associations, especially those connected with the life of the younger Pliny on the shores of Como.

Hilaire Belloc's "The Path to Rome" (Longmans) may perhaps be counted as a book of travel, although the most cursory examination leads one to conclude that that was not the author's primary purpose. There is in the story, however, a suggestion, at least, of actual journeyings, and for lack of any definite basis of classification we may group the book among the travel tales. To those disposed to take the author seriously,—as he himself does not,—we may say that the journeyings began at Toul on the Moselle, and ended at Rome. The tedious portions of the way are enlivened by the writer's inexhaustible fund of song and story, and the individuality of his style so enchains the reader's attention that the work's deficiencies as a guide-book are soon forgotten.



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[All the articles in the leading reviews are indexed, but only the more important articles in the other magazines.]

Ainslee's Magazine, N. Y. American Catholic Quarterly Review, Phila. Edinburgh Review, London. NEng. New England Magazine, Bos-Edin. Ains Education, Boston.
Education, Boston.
Educational Review, N. Y.
Engineering Magazine, N. Y.
Era, Philadelphia.
España Moderna, Madrid.
Everybody's Magazine, N. Y. ton.
Nineteenth Century, London,
North American Review, N.Y.
Nouvelle Revue, Paris. ACQR. Ed. EdR. NineC. American Historical Review, N. Y. NAR. Nou. AHR. Eng. American Journal of Soci-ology, Chicago. Nuova Antologia, Rome. Open Court, Chicago. Outing, N. Y. NA. OC. AJS. EM. Outing, N. Y.
Outlook, N. Y.
Out West, Los Angeles, Cal.
Overland Monthly, San Fran-Fortnightly Review, London. Forum, N. Y. Frank Leslie's Monthly, N. Y. Gentleman's Magazine, Lon-American Journal of The-ology, Chicago. AJT. Fort. 0 Out. Forum. American Law Review, St. OutW. FrL. ALR. Louis.
AMonM. American Monthly Magazine,
Washington, D. C.
AMRR. American Monthly Review of
Reviews, N. Y.
ANat. American Naturalist, Boston.
AngA. Anglo-American Magazine,
N. Y.
Annals. Annals of the American Academy of Poland Soc. Science. Louis. Gent. Over. Gentleman's Magazine, 1 don. Green Bag, Boston. Gunton's Magazine, N. Y. Hartford Seminary Reco Hartford, Conn. Homiletic Review, N. Y. International Journal Fibios Phila cisco.
Pall Mall Magazine, London. GBag. PMM. Pearson's Magazine, N. Y Philosophical Review, N Gunt. Pear. Phil. Harp. Photographic Times-Bulletin, N. Y. Poet-Lore, Boston. Political Science Quarterly, PhoT. Hart. Record, PL. PSQ. Hom. IJE. Ethics, Phila. International Quarterly, Bur-Boston. emy of Pol. and Soc. Science, Phila. Popular Astronomy, North-field, Minn. Popular Science Monthly, N.Y. PopA. Int. Architectural Record, N. Y. Arena, N. Y. lington, Vt. International Studio, N. Y. Arch. Arena. AA. AI. AJ. Atlant. Bad. BankL. IntS Arena, N. Y.
Art Amateur, N. Y.
Art Interchange, N. Y.
Art Journal, London.
Atlantic Monthly, Boston.
Badminton, London.
Bankers' Magazine, London.
Bankers' Magazine, N. Y.
Biblical World, Chicago.
Bibliothec Sacra. Oberlin. C Pops. Popular Science Monthly, N.Y.
PRR. Presbyterian and Reformed
Review, Phila.
PQ. Presbyterian Quarterly. Charlotte, N. C.
QJEcon. Quarterly Journal of Economics, Boston.
Quarterly Review, London.
RasN. Rasson, Nazionale, Florence.
Rafe Reforme Sociale Paris JMSI. Journal of the Military Service Institution, Governor's Island, N. Y. H.

JPEcon. Journal of Political Economy, Chicago. Kindergarten Magazine, Chi-Kind. Kind, Kindergarten Review, Spring-field, Mass.
LHJ. LeisH. Leisure Hour, London. Lippincott's Magazine, Phila. Lipudan Omarteely Review. BankNY Bib. Bibliotheca Sacra, Oberlin, O. Bibliothèque Universelle, Lau-Réforme Sociale, Paris. Review of Reviews, London. BibS. RefS. BU. RRL. RRM. Review of Reviews, bourne. sanne. Black. Blackwood's Magazine, Edin-Blackwood's alagazine, Editaburgh,
Book Buyer, N. Y.
Bookman, N. Y.
Brush and Pencil, Chicago.
Camera and Dark Room, N. Y.
Canadian Magazine, Toron-Revue. Revue, La, Paris. Revuedes Deux Mondes, Paris. LQ. London Quarterly Review. London. Longman's Magazine, London. Lutheran Quarterly, Gettys-BB. RDM. Bkman. BP. Long. RGen. RPar. Revue Générale, Brussels. Revue de Paris, Paris. Luth. Revue de Paris, Paris, Revue Politique et Parlemen-taire, Paris. Revue-Socialistic, Paris. Rosary, Somerset, Ohio. Sanitarian, N. Y. School Review, Chicago. Scribner's Magazine, N. Y. Sewanee Review, N. Y. Strand Magazine, London. Temple Ray. London. burg, Pa.

McClure's Magazine, N. Y.

Macmillan's Magazine, Lon-CDR. RPP. Can. McCl. RSoc. Mac. to, Cassell's Magazine, London. Cassier's Magazine, N. Y. Catholic World, N. Y. Century Magazine, N. Y. Chambers's Journal, Edin-burghis Magazine, M. Edin-burghis M. Edin-Bu MA. Magazine of Art, London.
MiN. Methodist Review, Nashville.
Mind. Mind. N. Wissionary Herald, Boston.
Miss. Missionary Review, N. Y.
Mon. Monthly Review, London.
Mund. Municipal Affairs, N. Y.
Mus. Musey's Magazine, N. Y.
Mus. Matonal Geographic Magazine, Washington, D. C.
Natth. National Geographic Magazine, Washington, D. C.
National Magazine, Boston.
NC. New-Church Review, Boston. Cass. Ros. don. San. School. Cath. Scrib. Cent. Cham. SocS. Str. burgh. Chaut. Chautauquan, Cleveland, O. Contem. Contemporary Review, Lon-Temple Bar, London. United Service Magazine, Temp. USM. don.
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Dial, Chicago. don. Corn. London. Vestminster Review, London. West. WPM. Westminster Review London. Wilson's Photographic Maga-zine, N. Y. World's Work, N. Y. Yale Review, New Haven. Young Man, London. Young Woman, London. CLA. ww. Crit. Yale. YM. YW. Deut. Dial. Dub. Dublin Review, Dublin.

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RT. HON. SIR EDMUND BARTON.

Premier of the Australian Commonwealth.

The Australian prime minister and Sir John Forrest, Minister of Defense, sailed from London for New York on August 20, for a visit to the United States.